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IN THE UNITED STATES
1928-1930

CHAPTER XVII

EDUCATION OF CERTAIN RACIAL GROUPS
IN THE UNITED STATES AND ITS
TERRITORIES

Prepared by

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With the Collaboration of

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and AMBROSE CALIVER

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CONTENTS.—I. Scope and nature of the educational problems considered. II. Education in the principal outlying possessions: (1) Hawaii; (2) Porto Rico; (3) Philippine Islands, 1920–1930. III. Work of the Office of Education for the natives of Alaska, by William Hamilton. IV. Indian education in the 48 States, by W. Carson Ryan, Jr. V. Education of Negroes in the United States, by Ambrose Caliver.

I. SCOPE AND NATURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS CONSIDERED

SCOPE OF THE AMERICAN UNDERTAKING IN EDUCATION

The extent and significance of the American undertaking to provide for or promote free public and universal education among the minority groups and native populations now living under our flag, large numbers of whom are citizens or potential citizens of our Republic, can be appreciated only in the light of the entire situation involved. The amount and distribution of territory, the number and variety of the groups, social conditions of the people, their traditions and ideals, as well as the school population and other more definitely educational problems, are all factors in the ensemble. Wide distribution of territory and people in itself usually connotes climatic, racial, and social differences, and in the extensive dispersion of our several outlying possessions alone one finds at least a forecast of the multitude and variety of the problems involved in extending education among the people. Beside continental United States, with its large Indian and Negro populations, outlying possessions, where native groups prevail or constitute a considerable percentage of the population, extend from Point Barrow, the extreme northern point in Alaska bordering the Arctic Ocean, to Rose Islet in American Samoa, farthest south, in the Pacific Ocean; from the Philippine

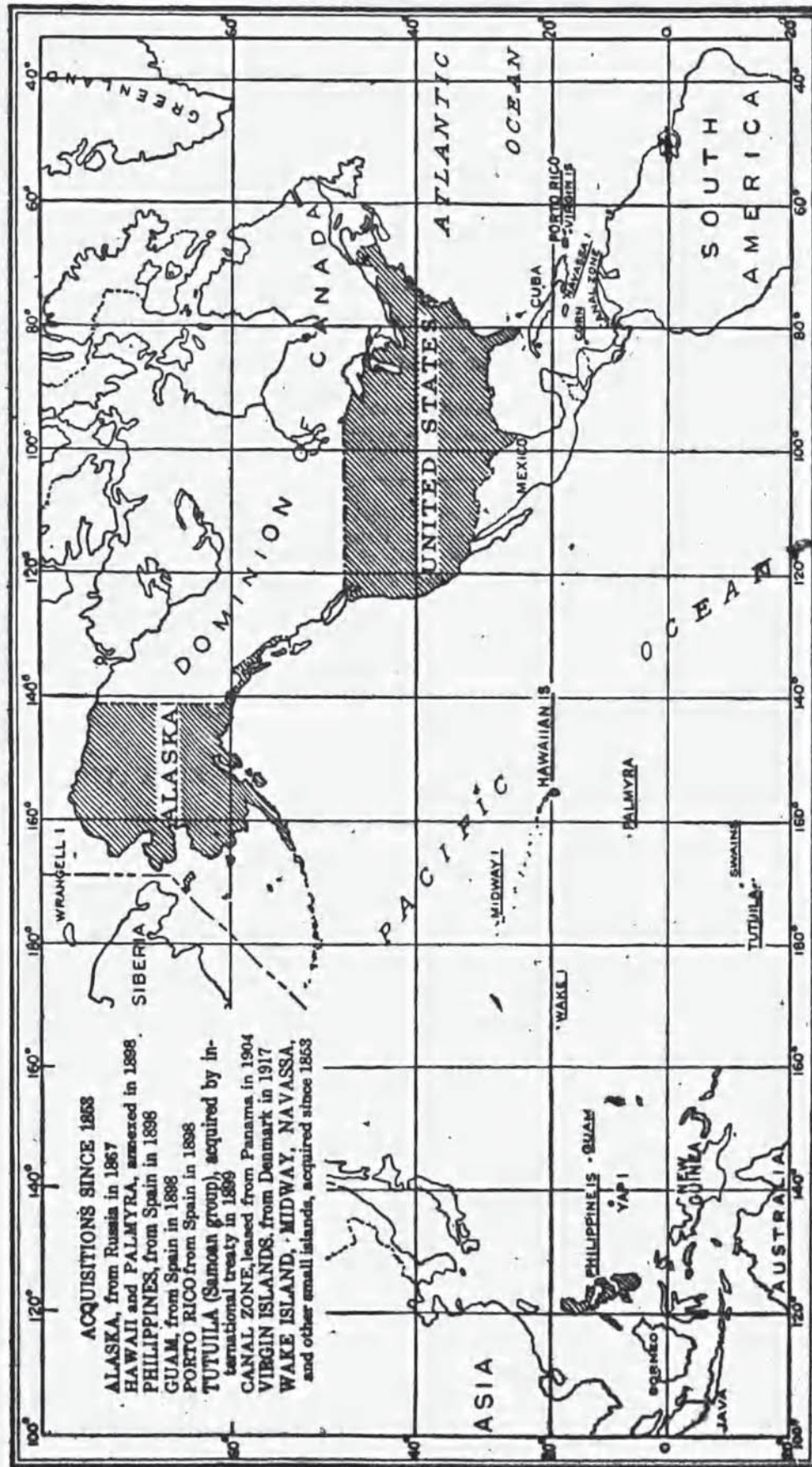


FIGURE 1.—Map of the United States showing acquisitions of territory since 1853

Islands, more than 10,000 miles west of the Capitol at Washington, to Porto Rico, approximately 1,500 miles east and south. In geographical language, the territory involved reaches from $71^{\circ} 45'$ N. to $14^{\circ} 32'$ S. latitude, and from $67^{\circ} 53'$ to 118° longitude east of Greenwich. Questions of accessibility alone and consequent ease with which ideas are exchanged and mutual understandings promoted are of momentous difficulty. One would have to sail completely around the world if one continued in the direction in which one started, with long detours to the north and to the south of a straight course, in order to cover the territory.

The accompanying map shows territorially the relative size and extent of the United States and its possessions. The cartographer of the National Geographic Society, who was good enough to make the calculation, found that an air line measuring the shortest distance from Point Barrow to Rose Islet would be 5,980 miles in length, and a similar shortest-distance line from the southernmost point of the Virgin Islands to the Philippines, which would be via the South Pole, would measure 10,800 miles.

In terms of area, our outlying possessions compose more than 711,609 square miles. Alaska alone has an area of 586,400 square miles. The Philippines, our next largest possession, are 114,400 square miles in area and are said to contain more than 7,000 islands. Further indication of the relative size of the possessions of the United States is presented graphically in Figure 2. Continental United States, on the scale used, would be represented by a square $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches on each side. It covers an area four and one-fourth times the combined area of all the outlying possessions.¹

Imposing as are the area and distances involved in a territorial survey of our far-flung possessions, it is, after all, with the people, especially with the children—their education and welfare—that we are most concerned. Certain general information regarding the enrollment and attendance in schools, the different types of schools, and the average per capita costs of maintaining them are presented in Table 1. Except in the Philippines and Porto Rico, where schools are as yet quite inadequate to house the school population, and consequently enrollment is quite insufficient as an index, the figures give a general idea of the school task under present conditions. Data of the type given in Table 1 are not available for Panama Canal Zone and American Samoa. The number of schools maintained and the total population for each of our eight possessions are as follows:

¹ Figures 1 and 2 and Table 2 are from Geological Survey Bulletin 817, U. S. Department of the Interior.

Statistics for the year 1930

Name	Number of schools	Enrollment	Population	Name	Number of schools	Enrollment	Population
Guam.....	21	3,683	18,509	Philippine Islands.....	¹ 7,616	1,121,233	12,000,000
American Samoa.....	20	1,957	10,005	Virgin Islands.....	¹ 24	3,061	22,012
Hawaii.....	150	71,657	368,336	Porto Rico.....	2,238	221,248	1,543,913
Panama Canal Zone.	15	6,616	39,469	Alaska.....	127	7,335	59,793

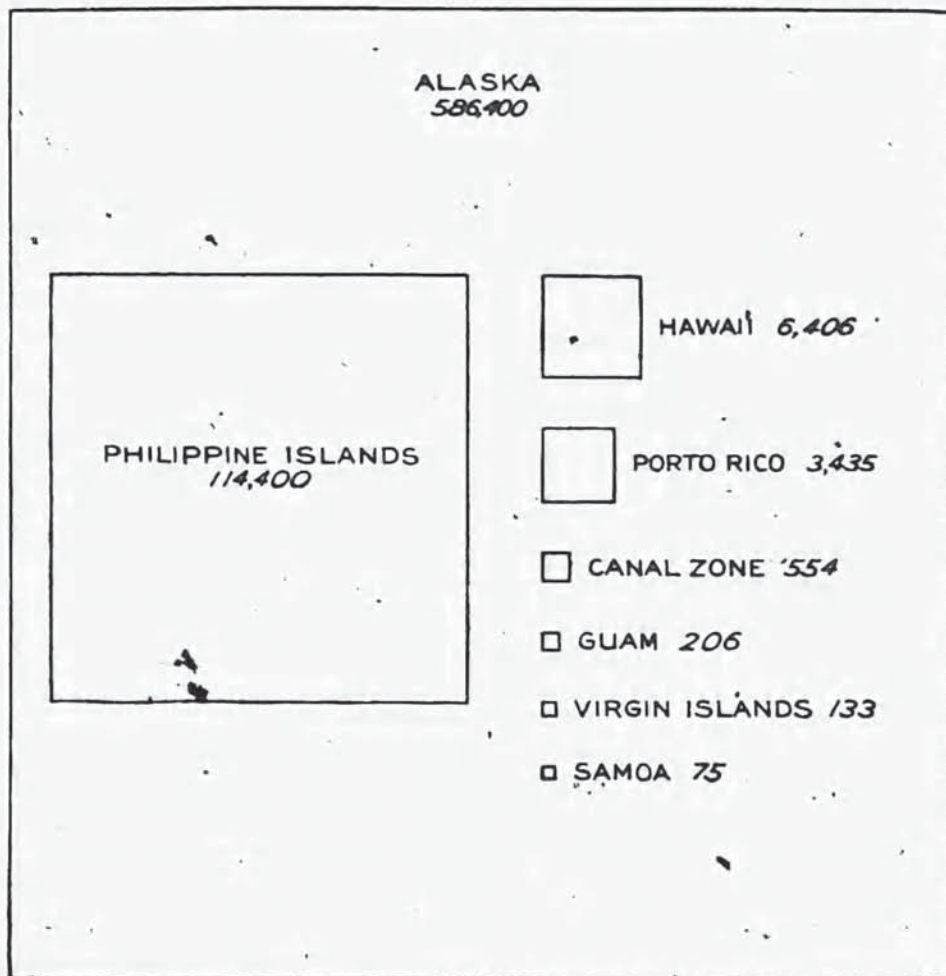
¹ 1929.¹ 1928.

FIGURE 2.—Relative size of possessions of the United States, plotted on a scale of 1 to 12,000,000. Figures indicate square miles¹

Information concerning the number of schools and total population was prepared by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce at the request of the State Department for use at the Colonial and Overseas Exposition. The total enrollment was reported to the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

¹ Figures 1 and 2 and Table 2 are from Geological Survey Bulletin 817, U. S. Department of the Interior.

EDUCATION OF CERTAIN RACIAL GROUPS

5

TABLE 1.—Data for 1929 and 1930 from annual reports to the United States Office of Education

Name	Enrollment			Attendance		Types of schools								Per capita cost
	Boys	Girls	Total	Aggregate	Average daily	Kindergarten	Elementary	Separately organized junior high	Junior-senior one organization	Regular high schools of 4 years or less	Vocational schools of secondary grade	For deaf, blind, feeble-minded, delinquent, etc.	Total	
Alaska.....			7,335	995,527	5,928								127	\$115.28
Guam.....	2,020	1,663	3,683	717,189	3,532		25						25	14.82
Hawaii.....	37,295	34,862	71,657	11,409,231	67,510		165	16		9	1	1	192	68.32
Philippines.....	651,954	469,279	1,121,233	193,709,568	1,008,904		7,200			125		37	329	10.50
Porto Rico.....	119,544	101,704	221,248	36,975,725	193,396		2,229			21			2,250	23.19
Virgin Islands.....	1,568	1,493	3,061	581,590	2,908		20	2	1			1	24	35.68

In continental United States assimilating into our national life the many different tribes of Indians with their respective differences in customs, languages, status as to progress in civilization, and the like has long been recognized as an obligation deserving of our best efforts. Similar responsibilities for the natives of Alaska came with our purchase of that Territory from Russia, though for many years after the purchase we apparently were neglectful of our responsibilities and opportunities both from the point of view of their civic and of their educational welfare. At the close of the Spanish-American War the Philippine Islands, Porto Rico with some adjacent territory—far-flung islands of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, each with momentous educational problems concerned with the native populations—became our responsibility, and in each of them, in spirit if not literally, the “schoolhouse followed the flag.” Since then we have annexed Samoa, Guam, and the Virgin Islands. Hawaii, like Alaska, has full territorial status. (See Table 2.)

TABLE 2.—Administrative control of the principal outlying possessions of the United States, January, 1930

Name	Under control of—		Executive officer and address	Year in which acquired
	Department	Bureau		
Alaska.....	Interior		Governor, Juneau, Alaska	1867
Canal Zone.....	Independent		Governor, Balboa Heights, Canal Zone	1903
Guam.....	Navy	Island Governments	Governor, Agaña, Guam	1898
Hawaii.....	Interior		Governor, Honolulu, Hawaii	1898
Samoa (American).....	Navy	Island Governments	Governor, Pago Pago, Tutuila	1900
Swains Island.....	do		do	
Philippine Islands.....	War	Insular Affairs	Governor, Manila, P. I.	1898
Porto Rico.....	do	do	Governor, San Juan, P. R.	1898
Virgin Islands of the United States.....	Navy ¹		Governor, St. Thomas, Virgin Islands	1917

¹ Transferred to Interior Department, March 18, 1931.

Besides the direct and indirect responsibilities for the education of native populations living under our flag, the Federal Government has from time to time found it necessary or expedient to assume certain service obligations for the welfare of independent nations, particularly those in contact with or adjacent to the Panama Canal. In these countries large educational problems inherent in or allied to economic and literacy status condition the development of mutual international understandings. The American occupation of Haiti is an example in point. As is well known, a committee was appointed recently to examine into education in Haiti, and to report its findings to the Department of State. This is evidence of a new attitude toward the significance of the amount and quality of education of indigenous peoples. It may have a widespread influence on relationships with and policies toward other Caribbean neighbors.

There are increasing manifestations of a deeper recognition of the importance of redefining objectives and reorganizing practices in educating native populations in our own and other countries. Recently a comprehensive survey of the whole situation involved in assimilating our Indian population was made under the direction of the Institute of Government Research. The stimulation of this survey and its recommendations have eventuated in rather fundamental changes in the program of the Federal Government as worked out through the Indian Office, and announced by the Secretary of the Interior in relation to the civic, economic, and especially to the educational welfare of the Indians.

In Alaska where both Indians and Eskimos make up the native population, amounting to approximately a third of the total population of the Territory, the present policy is looking toward eventual transfer of the responsibility for schools for natives to the Territorial government, the agency responsible for education in general. The first step was taken when the administration of the education and medical service to the natives of Alaska was transferred from the Office of Education to the Indian Service, unifying the work among the indigenous groups in that Territory and in the States.²

Evidences of interest and progress in the world at large, as well as in our own land, are not wanting. Extensive preparations are now under way for an educational exhibit in connection with the International Colonial and Overseas Exposition to be held in Paris from May to October, 1931. A commission is at work preparing the American exhibit, of which an educational section is to be an important part. There will be appropriate showings of the nature of educational work in progress in Porto Rico, Hawaii, Guam, the Virgin Islands, Alaska, and the Philippine Islands.

² This transfer was effected March 16, 1931.

Mexico, as all the world knows, has within the past few years launched an extensive educational program among her 23 different Indian races, an exceedingly high percentage of which are illiterate and up to the present time have been unintegrated into Mexican national life. This experiment, designed to make literate a vast population in the shortest possible time, is unique in many of its procedures. It has apparently thrown overboard traditional practices in education. Instead of modeling the new schools on the old tradition-perpetuating practices followed in the educational program in vogue, the Mexican scheme launches almost overnight an entirely new program in the establishment of a system of schools of action—*escuelas de accion*—representing an effort at an immediate country-wide application of the Dewey philosophy in education. This is probably the most extensive effort at the materialization of a program in what is generally termed “progressive” education which we have yet seen. The plan has found such favor abroad and such immediate success in Mexico that other Latin-American countries, notably Peru, recently formulated or have plans to launch programs somewhat similar in nature.

COMMON PROBLEMS IN VARIED SITUATIONS

In spite of wide differences—racial, economic, social, traditional, etc.—among the minority and indigenous peoples for whom an American education program has been established, the number of problems common to all situations is striking. Among the most significant is that of acquiring a common language. Little progress can be made in promoting common understandings of any kind until this is accomplished. Among the Indians in continental United States, as among the Indians and Eskimos in Alaska, many languages and dialects still prevail. In spite of a long period of exposure to American civilization and schools taught in English, a high percentage of the Indian population has not yet acquired facility in the common tongue. Teaching English is still one of the serious difficulties in the schools.

In the Territory of Hawaii, as in our principal insular possessions, the Philippines and Porto Rico, the success of the educational program is conditioned by its success in teaching and promoting the use of the English language. In Hawaii, English is universally accepted as the common and basic language, yet facility in its use still offers difficulties. In the Porto Rican schools both Spanish and English are basic, and an effort at rearing a bilingual generation is under way. In the Philippines, while progress toward universal education is still retarded by the lack of facility in the use of an accepted common language, the situation is reported as improving.

In general, the indigenous people for whose education we are responsible are predominantly rural—at least nonurban. The difficulties encountered in the education of our own rural population, still far from solved, are intensified among our indigenous and minority groups. Relative isolation, inadequate school financing, and difficulty of securing and preparing a professional staff offer obstacles to progress.

Wherever native races come in contact with and must eventually participate in an industrial and economic life quite different from their own traditional one, a school program adapted to their ability levels, organized to promote adjustment to changing social conditions, yet in harmony with their environment and presented in terms and through materials they understand, is a primary essential. Meeting the complex situations of modern civilized living offers difficulties even for those who have grown up with it.

In coping with problems arising from New World influences there is the ever-present danger of imposing on an unassimilated people our own educational system. It is apparent that mistakes have been made. Reports from education officials of the several groups considered in this chapter indicate a general recognition of the need for readjustment and adaptation. Vocational education programs are receiving special attention. The formulation of programs adapted to overcome the exceedingly high percentage of illiteracy, judged by American standards, of health programs designed to help both children and adults to acquire a fundamental reorganization of traditional modes of living essential to community life under modern conditions and the closer contacts of modern civilization—offer other problems momentous in character and common to the several groups. The possibility of achieving these ends is based on improved economic conditions. Promoting a common language, literacy, economic welfare, and health are closely intertwined.

Common also to each educational program is the desideratum of preserving the best in native cultures, religions, arts, and crafts, as well as the special gifts and talents with which as individuals and groups the native and minority peoples are so richly endowed. Such preservation involves much more than intelligent and sympathetic appreciation and understanding. It involves long-term educational programs including basic training in the arts and crafts, often a redirection of their processes and outcomes, and in many cases the creation of a market for the output which will insure satisfactory economic returns.

As education proceeds with all the minority peoples the aim is to transfer responsibility for administration, supervision, and instruction in the entire system as rapidly as possible to the groups them-

selves. This is in accord with the very earliest policy of the United States, when William Howard Taft, then Governor General, enunciated the doctrine of the Philippines for the Filipinos. In Porto Rico and in the Philippine Islands it has practically been achieved. Native teachers predominate, not only among elementary and secondary schools, but in the higher administrative and supervisory positions as well. In the Indian Service and to a more limited extent in Alaska, the training of natives to fill teaching positions, as well as nursing, social, and professional positions, is progressing, and the transfer of responsibility for these duties is going on wherever possible or consistent with efficiency.

By way of recapitulation, then, a sequence of detailed school problems grows out of the common basic objective of integrating native and minority peoples into a new social and economic order. Reports of education officials working in the different situations with which we are concerned indicate that there are many pertinent and as yet unsolved problems common to or similar in all of them. They are inherent in the building up of complete educational systems adapted to achieve the same general purpose though in widely differing situations.

II. EDUCATION IN THE PRINCIPAL OUTLYING POSSESSIONS

(1) HAWAII

Hawaii exemplifies, both in progress made and problems now uppermost in the educational program, many of the situations and problems to which reference has been made. In the promotion of universal literacy, in integration of the native population into full American citizenship and social participation, in the promulgation of American ideals as to the need of universal elementary and secondary education, in a growing acceptance of the interdependence of economic welfare and education, Hawaii appears to have achieved remarkable progress.

Recent reports concerning educational conditions in Hawaii indicate the existence of certain significant problems which are natural outcomes of a changing social order to which neither the people nor the schools are as yet fully adjusted. There is considerable retardation, no doubt due in part to the economic situation as well as to language difficulties. The relatively extensive health program with which Hawaii aims to reach both children and adults is not yet adequate, and its further extension is being sought by education officials. A widespread interest is apparent in curricular revision, especially in the secondary schools, through which it is hoped to devise a new program in vocational education which will help solve some of the economic problems of the Territory and result in increasing enrollment in vocational courses while reducing that in strictly academic ones. There is now at work a gubernatorial committee investigating conditions of education and industry. On the basis of the analysis made it is expected that a revised program, particularly in vocational education, may be recommended by the committee and financed by the coming session of the Territorial legislature.

Hawaii has a compulsory education law applicable to all children 6 to 14 years of age, regardless of racial descent, or of occupation and residence of parents. According to the biennial report for the period ending 1928, school housing facilities are available for every child of school age. The increase in enrollment in grades 1 to 6 during the decade ending in 1928 was 98 per cent. All teachers are and must be by law American citizens. Practically all children

enrolled in the schools are now citizens of the United States. The extent to which native Hawaiians have accepted the educational program is indicated by the fact that 15 per cent of the school enrollment and 20 per cent of the teachers are Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian. A few private schools are exclusively for natives of pure or part-Hawaiian blood. However, the general practice in both private and public schools is to make no distinction. Apparently in Hawaii the education of the natives in itself no longer constitutes a special problem. According to a statement of the superintendent of public instruction for the Territory of Hawaii in December, 1930, "We have no separate schools nor educational plans for the indigenous peoples of this Territory in differentiation from any other people. All of our schools are regular public schools for all children of the Territory and to the best of my knowledge they compare favorably with public schools throughout the rest of the United States."

The report of the Territorial commissioner of education for 1928 resembles in all substantial respects similar reports from progressive States on the mainland. The school system is highly centralized. It embodies in its administrative organization many of the principles advocated by the best authorities on school administration for State organization. A uniform salary schedule is provided for rural and urban teachers, an achievement, indeed, which none of our States has yet reached. There is equitable distribution of school funds, and similar educational opportunities are furnished throughout the Territory.

A research division in the department of education is functioning actively. Under its guidance an activity program for the primary grades has been developed "from actual experiences of teachers throughout the system." Some idea of the course of study resulting may be gained from the following topics discussed in the introduction: The meaning of an activity program; points of superiority of such a program; characteristics of a good activity; dependence of an activity upon experience; the place of subject matter in an activity program. It is believed that this course of study for primary grades is a distinct contribution to the field of curriculum making which will result in vitalizing teaching throughout the Territory and should facilitate the initiation of activity programs of the type to which progressive education is committed.

(2) PORTO RICO

An examination of recent reports of progress in education in Porto Rico impresses one with the apparent efforts to follow out recommendations of the survey of the Porto Rican educational system

made by the International Institute of Teachers College in 1926. The most pressing problems of education result from the density of population and the inadequacy of funds with which to maintain schools. Eighty per cent of the population is rural. The economic level is low. There are neither school buildings nor teachers enough to supply adequate education facilities, elementary and secondary, to more than half of the total school population.

Yet with all the difficulties the survey of 1926 calls attention to an achievement in Porto Rico unparalleled in the history of education in continental United States, namely, the building of the framework of a complete educational system in the short period of 25 years. The school system, while modeled after that of the United States and distinctively American, does not surrender the native language and culture of the people of Porto Rico; rather, it aims to preserve both. Financing the public-school system, even prior to the recent tornado disaster, has been a heavy burden for a strictly rural territory. The per capita wealth of the island is less than half that of the least prosperous of our States. The people have therefore spent on the building up of the educational system an unprecedented proportion of their annual revenues. While the percentage of illiteracy was reduced more than 50 per cent between 1900 and 1925, approximately half the children of school age were not at that time enrolled in school, chiefly because of the lack of available schoolhouses and teachers. Practically all the children in school in rural districts attended half-day sessions only.

Since 1926 considerable progress has been made in extending educational facilities to larger numbers of children. Accommodations, however, are still wholly insufficient. There is the added problem of large numbers of undernourished children at school. For these children lunches and breakfasts are now provided either without cost to them or at very nominal cost. According to the last available report of the department of education for 1927-28 a lunch room was provided for every school unit in Porto Rico through the combined effort and resources of the government and the people and through various types of contributions. Securing money for the extension of this service was one of the objectives of the recent visit of Governor Roosevelt to the United States.

So important are matters of sanitation and health to the general welfare of the island that a commission was appointed during the present biennium by the President of the United States to study the problem and make recommendations for future procedure. As an evidence of its understanding of the school's responsibility for the promulgation of a health program adapted to the general welfare, the department of education is now formulating plans with the cooperation of the American Child Health Association for the re-

vision of its school health program to conform with plans recommended by the committee.

Porto Ricans are feeling the need of a larger program in vocational education designed to contribute to the economic prosperity and to the development of the natural resources of the island. The Federal Board for Vocational Education recently completed a survey of the situation and made extensive recommendations concerning further progress in this direction. At the present time industrial work, agriculture, and home economics all hold important places in the school program, elementary as well as secondary. Courses in Porto Rican foods, in the making of Porto Rican lace, in needle work and embroidery, in basketry, and in growing vegetables, are among those offered in the effort to advance and adapt the vocational education program. With the health and agriculture courses particularly, the schools aim to reach adults through parent associations, meetings, and exhibits.

Manual training and mechanical drawing courses have been modified in the last two years and placed on a project basis, including as many as possible of the trades, particularly those useful on the island. Industrial courses are offered in the graded and rural schools, the ultimate aim of which is "to develop fully the natural resources of the country." In the "second unit" of the rural schools the courses are based wholly on a vocational program, with emphasis on those trades economically productive in Porto Rico. As an illustration of the work in agriculture, Porto Rico's chief industry, the last annual report of the commissioner states that there were during the year 1,844 classrooms in which agriculture was taught; 17,952 home gardens were cultivated through the efforts of the schools; 279 agricultural exhibits and 1,389 public meetings of parents' associations were held; teachers and supervisors made 124,071 visits to the homes; and 7,063 rural conferences were held.

At the request of the commissioner of education the legislature made a budgetary appropriation of \$25,000 for the fiscal year 1928-29 to finance a reorganization of the rural-school curriculum. Central schools, vocational in character, known as "second unit" schools, were established in six different sections of the island. The aims of these schools, as stated in the report of the department of education, are: (1) To raise standards of living in rural communities, (2) to improve the productive capacity of the island, (3) to carry out a program of social and health instruction based on the needs of the people in the rural centers, (4) to improve the life and home conditions of the people. Additional schools in other sections will be established as rapidly as conditions warrant. Thirteen such schools are reported at the close of the school year 1930.

The department of education is vigorously attacking the matter of in-service training for teachers. Two unusual phases of this work are in progress. The first is an effort to assist through in-service training the regular teachers, especially rural teachers, with the special subjects now being stressed by the department, particularly agriculture and the manual arts. In this work the department of education, College of Agriculture and Manual Arts, and the insular department of agriculture cooperate. The second phase is the practice of the department of education to offer "outlines of work to teachers from the United States who wish to learn Spanish." Three courses—elementary, intermediate, and advanced—are offered, for the completion of which credits similar to those offered in colleges and universities in the United States are granted.

The need of library service, especially of school libraries, is felt keenly in the education of native populations. In Hawaii and Porto Rico definite efforts are in progress to overcome the present deficiency. In Porto Rico the department of education has adopted a plan whereby it is hoped that "libraries in the secondary schools at least will begin a steady and normal growth." Each student is requested to contribute \$1 per year to the library fund, an amount somewhat less than would be required if he bought the 10 books required as supplementary reading. With the fund so acquired the schools can purchase a sufficient number of copies of the required textbooks that all students may have adequate access to them and in addition purchase some general and special reference books. Over a period of years libraries will be built up. At the end of the fiscal year 1927-28 there were 732 school libraries in the Porto Rican system. A campaign has recently been launched to provide small libraries for rural homes, while the professional library of the department of education was enriched during 1927-28 by the addition of several hundred volumes.

In Porto Rico, as elsewhere among indigenous peoples, the problem of retardation is a serious one. For many years the custom prevailed of receiving in school older children in preference to younger ones, since accommodations for all are insufficient. While recent efforts have been in the direction of reversing this practice, it was inevitable that a high percentage of retardation should result which will require years to overcome even under improved conditions. Double enrollment, that is, two classes of 30 to 35 pupils per teacher, one taught in the forenoon and one in the afternoon, is another factor in retardation. This plan has been followed since the initiation of the present school system. It is now confined largely to the first grade, and, according to the annual report of the department of education,

1929, is "the only method that will solve the present problem until more funds are provided."

For five years the department of education has conducted a bureau of extension and examination which provides instruction to many students who have not the privilege of attending school. The student body is composed of teachers and others who work during the day or can not afford to attend school and students from the regular high schools who take one or two subjects in extension to reduce the time they must otherwise spend in school. It is the purpose of the bureau to establish a complete system of instruction by correspondence as soon as facilities are available. The University of Porto Rico offers summer courses in science and mathematics for persons enrolled with the bureau. In 1927-28, 74 high-school diplomas and 4 elementary school diplomas were issued to those who had completed the required courses.

(3) PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, 1920-1930

By JOHN H. MCBRIDE, JR.

Superintendent on Special Detail, Academic Division

Administration of education in the Philippine Islands is centered in the bureau of education, created in 1901 under the executive control and general supervision of the department of public instruction, at the head of which is the Vice Governor of the Philippine Islands.

The present school system consists of an elementary school of seven years and a secondary school of four years in which all instruction is in English. Elementary education in all parts of the islands is free, except for a matriculation fee of ₱2 (\$1) collected from pupils in grades 5 to 7, inclusive. Purely academic secondary schools are partly supported by tuition fees paid by the pupils, but vocational schools offering the normal, agricultural, trade, commercial, nautical, and home-economics curricula are maintained wholly by the government. At the present time all the teachers in the elementary schools and the majority of teachers in the secondary schools are Filipinos. When it is considered that the bureau of education, when organized, faced the problem of initiating a modern school system where there had been only a handful of scattered schools which operated without adequate supervision, support, or personnel, and of training a body of teachers not only in subject matter and in modern methods of teaching but also in the language which they were to employ in teaching, the magnitude of the task may be appreciated.

The early years from 1901 to 1920 were years of development and expansion during which the system passed through many progressive stages. The first period of expansion lasted from the beginning of

the bureau to about 1911, when the enrollment exceeded 600,000. From then there was no considerable increase until after the passage of a law by the Philippine Legislature in 1918 setting aside 30,000,000 pesos (\$15,000,000) to be spent over a 5-year period beginning 1919 for the extension of elementary education. During the first three years of this period the funds under this appropriation were released as provided for by the law. Due to financial difficulties caused by post-war readjustment the full amounts of the last two years' grants were not available. The actual amount received for extension of elementary education, therefore, was ₱25,055,056. By 1920 the enrollment had increased to 791,626. During the life of this act it further increased to 1,130,316 in 1925. Until 1929, when another act of the legislature appropriated ₱700,000 (\$350,000) for extension of barrio (rural) education, the increase in enrollment was gradual. In that year the enrollment was 1,175,145, which was further increased to 1,195,763 in 1930 by an additional appropriation of ₱500,000 (\$250,000) for the same purpose.

Table 1 shows the increase in enrollment from 1920 to 1930.

TABLE I.—Annual enrollment March (school year is from June to March)

School year	Elementary		Secondary	Total
	Grades I-IV	Grades V-VII	Years I-IV	
1919-20.....	686,286	88,136	17,204	791,626
1924-25.....	904,079	178,490	49,747	1,130,316
1929-30.....	892,021	205,957	77,167	1,175,145
Increase.....	205,735	117,821	59,963	383,519
Per cent of increase.....	29.9	133.6	348.5	48.4

During the decade a decided trend toward a more practical secondary education has set in. This is more noteworthy when it is remembered that before the beginning of the American schools the educational system was purely academic and labor was looked down upon by the educated people. Because of the need of teachers and Government employees who could understand English, the early American schools had to emphasize academic training, but even then vocational education was introduced by the establishment of the commercial school, the nautical school, the school of arts and trades, the Central Luzon Agricultural School, the Philippine Normal School, and the introduction of a home economics curriculum for girls in several of the high schools. At the present time there are in operation 27 provincial trade schools, 8 provincial normal schools, 9 high schools giving the normal course, 14 agricultural schools, 16 rural high schools giving the agricultural

course, 1 secondary home economics school, and 32 high schools and rural high schools offering the home economics curricula and 59 high schools with the academic course.

Table 2 shows the increase in enrollment by curricula in the secondary schools from 1919-20 to 1929-30.

TABLE 2.—Enrollment by curricula in secondary schools

School year	General	Normal	Trade	Agricultural	Home economics	Commercial	Nautical	Surveying
1919-20.....	10,676	1,833	266	137	423	344	58	40
1924-25.....	39,946	6,418	1,398	2,222	2,497	571	29	
1929-30.....	52,389	7,266	5,231	4,050	4,848	595	84	
Increase, 10 years.....	41,713	5,433	4,965	3,913	4,425	251	29	
Per cent of increase.....	390.7	296.4	1,866.5	2,921.9	1,046.1	72.9	50.0	

The pronounced increase in enrollment in the intermediate and secondary grades (Table 1), during the period from 1920 to 1930, shows the tendency toward a lengthening period of education for the pupils. During the early years of the American administration overage was the rule in all grades. Pupils remained in school a short time because of economic pressure. Gradually, however, the children admitted approached the normal age set by law at 7 years for admission to the first grade, and the period the children remained in school lengthened.

Table 3 shows the per cent of total enrollment in the primary, intermediate, and secondary grades during this period. The large increase came during the life of the 30,000,000-peso act, when funds were available for extension of school facilities. In other words, the holding power of the schools is increasing more rapidly than school facilities can be made available to accommodate the pupils in the upper grades.

TABLE 3.—Per cent of total enrollment in primary, intermediate, and secondary grades

School year	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	Total
1919-20.....	86.52	11.50	1.98	100.00
1920-25.....	78.70	16.29	5.01	100.00
1929-30.....	76.12	17.31	6.57	100.00

Hand in hand with the increased enrollment went an increase in the professional training of teachers. Although the teaching force was increased by 9,997 new teachers during this period, the educational qualifications required for teachers were raised considerably. The average Filipino teacher in 1919-20 was an undergraduate of

the secondary school; in 1929-30 he was a secondary-school graduate. While in 1919-20 only 742, or 4.3 per cent, of the teachers were graduates either of a secondary normal school or a college of education, in 1929-30 5,257 such teachers were employed. This is 19.2 per cent of the teaching force.

Tables 4 and 5 show the number of American and Filipino teachers employed and the educational qualifications of the Filipino teachers.

TABLE 4.—*Classification of teachers (March)*

School year	American					Filipino					Grand total
	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	Supervisor	Total	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	Supervisor	Total	
1919-20.....	16	24	239	62	341	13,567	2,967	208	492	17,234	17,575
1924-25.....	19	16	267	20	322	18,744	5,612	840	633	25,829	26,151
1929-30.....	22	18	237	17	294	17,848	7,200	1,584	646	27,278	27,572
Difference between 1919-20 and 1929-30.....	6	-6	-2	-45	-47	4,281	4,233	1,376	154	10,044	9,997

TABLE 5.—*Educational qualifications of Filipino teachers (August)*

Courses completed	Number of Filipino teachers completing various courses					
	Total			Percentage		
	1920	1925	1930	1920	1925	1930
Grade 7 or less.....	10,967	8,136	2,470	63.64	24.02	7.43
1 to 3 years of a secondary course.....	4,277	11,117	7,228	24.82	45.08	21.58
Secondary curricula (all types).....	956	4,679	13,302	5.55	22.62	54.07
1 to 3 years of college (includes P. N. S.).....	827	1,227	2,904	4.80	5.68	11.91
4 years college or better.....	28	137	1,228	.16	2.60	5.01
All others.....	179	533	1.03
Total.....	17,234	25,829	27,132	100.00	100.00	100.00

It being one of the objectives of the public-school system to give the people of the Philippine Islands a common language—English—all instruction in the public schools is in this language, and more emphasis is therefore given to reading and language in the elementary grades than in continental United States schools. In line with this policy, extensive reading in supplementary and library books is encouraged. As rapidly as finances permit, libraries are being established and enlarged in the schools. These libraries are financed from a matriculation fee fixed by executive order of the Governor General at ₱2 (\$1) for each pupil in grades 5 to 7, inclusive, and ₱4 (\$2) for each pupil in the secondary schools, of which 60 per cent

may be used for library and 40 per cent for athletic purposes, and from contributions of parent-teacher associations and school benefits.

Table 6 shows the increase in library facilities in the past 10 years.

TABLE 6.—*Library facilities*

School year	Number of—							
	School libraries				Books in school libraries			
	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	Total	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	Total
1919-20.....	2,001		59	2,060	249	515	101,620	351,135
1924-25.....	2,579	962	92	3,813	292,518	307,687	197,701	797,906
1929-30.....	3,430	1,148	119	4,697	498,434	695,527	408,585	1,602,546
Increase.....	2,597		60	2,637	944,197	695,012	306,965	1,251,411

A serious difficulty of the early schools was that of obtaining appropriate textbooks. Texts written for American schools had to be used. These gave place to American texts adapted for use in the islands. During the past decade, however, there has been available a number of texts written by Americans and Filipinos purposely for the Philippine schools. During the school year 1929-30 all the basic texts used in the primary grades and approximately one-half of those used in the intermediate grades were written by Filipinos or by Americans and Filipinos. In the secondary grades 20 of the 32 basic texts, mostly those in literature and in the sciences, are texts used in American high schools. Textbooks are adopted for a period of six years by a board appointed by the Governor General.

As a result of the establishment of a curriculum department in the office of the director of education, curriculum revision has been put on a more scientific basis. Subjective procedure has been abandoned and objective bases are now being sought to guide revising the curriculum. General objectives and divisional objectives for elementary schools, grade objectives for arithmetic in the elementary grades, and first-year secondary mathematics, second-year secondary general science, and fourth-year secondary physics objectives have been worked out.

During the past two years an intensive study of the materials and techniques of instruction in arithmetic has been conducted throughout the islands. Common errors have been isolated and the content of the course evaluated. Practice tests are being developed to fit the peculiar needs of the schools and better teaching technique developed.

Health instruction has held its place as one of the major phases of education in the public schools. Added impetus has been given

this phase of instruction during the past few years by the addition to the director's office of a special supervisor for this work. Interest was aroused through the use of the classroom height and weight record. Better sanitary facilities in schools and a more widespread establishment of school lunch counters for the children have followed.

Supervisors in the director's office keep in touch with the work of the schools and are aided in guiding them by the use of the official magazine of the bureau. This magazine, called the Philippine Public Schools, is published monthly and issued free to every teacher in the system. It serves as a clearing house for the interchange of ideas among the teachers as well as a medium by means of which the director's staff may guide the work of the teachers.

School moneys come from three sources—municipal revenue, provincial revenue, and insular revenue. The municipal revenue is derived from the land tax collected in the town, from a share of the internal-revenue collections, from fees for marriages celebrated in the town, and other minor levies which the municipal council is authorized to make. The provincial revenue is composed of a tuition fee paid by the pupils in the academic secondary school and whatever amount the provincial board wishes to vote for school purposes from the general revenue. The insular revenue depends on the Philippine Legislature. In neither provincial nor insular revenues is there a permanent income for schools. Corresponding to this classification of revenues there are municipal, provincial, and insular schools. Originally municipal schools were primary schools supported by local or municipal revenues and provincial schools were intermediate schools supported by provincial revenues. Special higher schools, such as the Philippine Normal School, the Central Luzon Agricultural School, the Nautical School, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, the School of Commerce, and the School for the Deaf and the Blind were supported entirely by insular funds. Later as the secondary schools were established in the provinces and more intermediate classes became necessary, the primary and intermediate schools were combined and known as elementary schools and were made municipal schools, leaving the secondary school only to be supported by the province. This is the organization that exists to-day. However, the elementary schools have increased to such an extent that the municipal funds are entirely inadequate to maintain them and it has become necessary for the insular government to aid the municipalities by an ever-increasing amount of insular aid each year. This aid takes the form of grants for maintenance and special appropriations for permanent improvements. Table 7 shows the amounts spent by the insular, provincial, and municipal governments for all school purposes during the last 10 years.

TABLE 7.—*Total expenditures for school purposes (in pesos)*

Year	Insular	Provincial	Municipal	Total
1920	12,802,247.83	1,060,492.28	4,358,799.59	18,211,539.70
1921	14,313,825.35	3,278,606.40	4,709,286.54	22,301,718.29
1922	14,884,237.76	2,463,632.87	4,721,068.95	22,068,939.58
1923	14,440,716.69	2,657,264.74	5,104,551.06	22,202,532.49
1924	15,307,446.76	2,909,016.32	6,313,078.47	24,529,540.55
1925	15,322,761.65	3,071,864.55	5,753,859.23	24,148,485.49
1926	16,291,895.30	3,563,253.10	5,569,285.92	25,424,434.32
1927	17,945,183.18	3,995,459.19	5,678,864.45	27,619,506.82
1928	18,969,097.81	4,402,545.65	5,623,322.52	28,994,965.98
1929	19,819,438.12	5,174,105.42	5,594,808.57	30,588,352.11

The amount of ₧30,588,352.11 spent for schools in 1929 is 20.11 per cent of the total governmental expenditure of the islands for that year. Of this amount, 66.39 per cent was used for salaries, 20.09 per cent for other current expenses, and 13.52 per cent for buildings, grounds, and other permanent improvements.

III. WORK OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION FOR THE NATIVES OF ALASKA¹

By WILLIAM HAMILTON

Assistant Chief, Alaska Division, Office of Education

The work of the Office of Education with reference to Alaska has hitherto included administrative authority with respect to the education, support, and medical relief of the aborigines and supervision of the reindeer industry. During the fiscal year 1930 the responsibility of the Office of Education in connection with the reindeer industry was transferred to the Governor of Alaska, on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Education.

In order that the headquarters of administrative authority should be located as near as possible to situations demanding attention, the office of the chief of the Alaska division has been transferred from Seattle to Juneau, the purchasing of supplies, the making of arrangements for the transportation of appointees and supplies, and the operation of the U. S. S. *Boxer* remaining as duties to be performed by the purchasing agent and office manager in Seattle.

The amount granted by Congress for the education and support of the natives of Alaska during the year 1930 was \$580,400 and for their medical relief \$171,780. Ninety-three schools were maintained with 195 teachers, an enrollment of 3,899, and an average attendance of 3,029.

In performing its duties to provide schools for and to care for the health and general welfare of the aboriginal races of Alaska the Alaska division in the Office of Education has been confronted with a formidable task.

If Alaska, with its area of 586,400 square miles, were superimposed on the United States, its northernmost cape would be on the boundary between the United States and Canada, its southeasternmost extremity would touch the Atlantic coast at the State of Georgia, the Aleutian Islands would skirt the Mexican border, and the westernmost of its islands would lie in California.

In this great Territory the 27,000 Eskimos, Aleuts, Athabascans, and Thlingets are scattered along the 25,000 miles of coast and on the great rivers, in villages varying from 30 or 40 to 300 or 400 persons.

¹ On March 16, 1931, administration of the education and medical service for the natives of Alaska was transferred to the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

In the course of years the work of the Office of Education in Alaska has expanded until now its schools are far flung throughout that northern land, from its southern boundary to its northernmost cape—in the villages on the forested islands of southeast Alaska, on the lonely shores of the southwest, on the storm-swept islands of the Aleutian chain, along the great rivers, beside fog-ridden Bering Sea, on the frozen plains of the far north, and beside the ice-bound waters of the Arctic Ocean. To some of the settlements the annual visit of the supply vessel furnishes their only means of communication with the rest of the world. In many instances the school is the only elevating influence in the village.

In the Alaskan native community the school is the center of activity—educational, industrial, civic, and social. The schoolroom is available for public meetings for the discussion of the affairs of the village or, occasionally, for social purposes. Some of the buildings contain a laundry and baths for the use of the natives. The school workshop is available for the making and repair of boats, sleds, and furniture. Night-school sessions are held by many teachers for adults who realize that a knowledge of English is essential to enable them to meet the changing conditions which confront them.

The Alaska school service demands of the teachers not professional qualifications only. Philanthropic motives, good judgment, patience, initiative, and ability to do effective work under adverse circumstances are essential to the success of a teacher in a native Alaskan village. From the nature of things, a teacher in an Alaskan native school must widen the scope of his activities beyond the schoolroom. Of necessity he assumes the functions of a community leader, an arbitrator in disputes, a censor of morals, a preserver of peace, and a public nurse and medical adviser. He must have courage and resourcefulness to cope successfully with all manner of emergencies.

During the year the professional requirements of teachers for the Alaska school service were revised so that they are now up to the standard required by other school systems. For the position of teacher, graduation from high school, two years' normal-school training, or graduation from a college of recognized standing, with at least one year of successful teaching experience, are required. For the position of assistant teacher, graduation from high school, two years' normal-school training, and experience in practice teaching are required. These qualifications may be waived with reference to teachers who are to give instruction in domestic science or in the various industries or who are to perform community or welfare work, also with reference to natives who are recommended for appointment as assistant teachers.

It is gratifying to note that the natives of Alaska are rapidly becoming qualified to serve as assistant teachers. In southeastern Alaska, where the natives have had the benefit of schools for a longer period than those in other sections, native teachers make up 28 per cent of the number of teachers in that district. Native teachers constitute the entire teaching staff at Klawock, the second largest native school in Alaska, with an enrollment of 112 and a curriculum extending through the twelfth grade.

In all of the day schools instruction in some form of industrial work is given, principally in cooking and sewing, to the girls, and in carpentry to the boys. When no other place is available, cooking is often taught in the teacher's own kitchen. By purchasing groceries and other supplies at the local stores the natives frequently supplement the materials furnished by the Office of Education. In this way the domestic-science work at some of the day schools has become practically self-supporting.

To give specialized training in industries for which the day schools are not equipped, industrial boarding schools are in operation at White Mountain, on Seward Peninsula, with 90 pupils; at Kanakanak, on Bristol Bay, with 72 pupils; and at Eklutna, on the Alaska Railroad, north of Anchorage, with 92 pupils. To White Mountain are sent Eskimo boys and girls from the villages on the northwestern coast as far as Point Barrow. Kanakanak is the center for vocational training for the Aleuts and for the Eskimos of southwestern Alaska. The Alaska Railroad makes Eklutna readily accessible for pupils from central Alaska and from the upper Yukon region.

The curriculum of these schools includes such industries as will improve the living conditions of the natives and afford them assured means of support. Instruction is given in carpentry, house building, furniture making, cooking, bread baking, sewing, the making of clothing, boat building, sled construction, the operation and repair of gas engines, the making of snowshoes, the tanning of skins, taxidermy, the carving of wood and ivory, blanket making, and basket weaving. To train the natives for effective service in their cooperative stores, instruction is also given in typewriting, stenography, clerical work, and business methods.

Centuries of experience in the use of tools of their own contrivance have developed in the native races of Alaska mechanical skill of a high order, which they successfully apply in the various industries taught in the schools.

The expense of conducting the three industrial schools during the fiscal year 1930, including the expenditures for salaries, supplies, and the construction and repair of buildings, was as follows: For Eklutna, \$63,522.81; for Kanakanak, \$43,702.87; and for White Mountain, \$43,132.11.

Preliminary steps have been taken toward the establishment of an industrial boarding school for the natives of southeastern Alaska. The site selected for this school is a tract on Shoemaker Bay, 4 miles south of the town of Wrangell, including approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles of water front with an average width of one-half mile. The complete estimate contemplates the erection of a group of five buildings at a total cost of \$171,000. The \$71,000 available for expenditure during the fiscal year 1931 will be used in preparing plans, surveying the tract, clearing the land, and in erecting the principal school and dormitory buildings, in so far as the appropriation is sufficient to cover these projects.

To provide a home for orphans and other young children of pre-school and early school age, an orphanage, with a staff consisting of a matron, an assistant matron, and a cook, has been established in one of the former Fort Gibbon buildings, at Tanana, which have been transferred to the Office of Education. To this institution will be taken homeless young children who have hitherto of necessity been cared for in the industrial boarding schools at Kanakanak, Eklutna, and White Mountain. This will have the desirable effect of restricting attendance at the industrial schools to pupils of suitable age.

For the medical relief of the natives the Office of Education employed, during the fiscal year 1930, 9 physicians and 29 nurses. It maintained hospitals at Juneau, Tanana, Akiak, Kanakanak, and Kotzebue. Each hospital is a center of medical relief for a very wide territory, and each physician makes extended tours through his district.

Qualifications of employees in the Alaska medical service have been definitely prescribed. For the position of physician, graduation from a legally chartered medical school whose requirements for graduation are not less than the requirements of the Association of American Medical Colleges is required, as well as evidence of the completion of a year's internship in a recognized hospital, or of successful practice for at least four years, and a license from the medical examining board of the Territory of Alaska.

For the position of nurse, graduation from a school for nurses of recognized standing is necessary, as well as evidence of successful professional practice for at least one year.

For the position of dentist, graduation from a legally chartered dental college of recognized standing is required, as well as a certificate from the board of dental examiners of the Territory of Alaska.

The hospitals, physicians, and nurses serve only the more thickly populated districts. In the vast outlying areas the teachers must, of necessity, extend medical aid to the best of their ability. Ac-

cordingly, the teachers in settlements where the services of a physician or nurse are not available are supplied with simple remedies and instructions for their use. In the majority of the native villages the teachers are the only "doctors" and "health officers" and the school often serves as a dispensary for the natives within a radius of several hundred miles. As part of the day's work, the teacher visits the homes in the village to see that hygienic conditions are maintained, to show mothers how to care for and feed their infants, to demonstrate the proper ways of preparing food, and to inculcate cleanliness and the necessity of ventilation.

To natives and white men scattered along thousands of miles of the Yukon River and its tributaries the Office of Education's Yukon medical boat furnishes the only means of securing medical and dental relief. Each year, in a cruise during June, July, August, and September, and extending as far as the Yukon delta, the services of the physician, the two nurses, and the dentist on this boat are in constant demand at each stopping place. The work includes distribution of medicines with instructions for their use, extending first aid, instructions regarding the care of the sick, advice concerning the care and feeding of children, performing such operations as can be attended to on the boat, extracting and filling teeth, and the transportation of a limited number of patients to the hospitals at Tanana and Fairbanks. During the cruise of 108 days in the summer of 1930, 64 villages and camps were visited, 1,493 patients were treated, 234 surgical operations, including 194 tonsillectomies, were performed. The total number of dental treatments was 4,123.

The bureau's medical work is supplemented by contracts with hospitals at Anchorage, Nome, Cordova, Wrangell, and Fairbanks, in Alaska; with the Children's Orthopedic Hospital, Firlands Sanatorium, and Riverton Sanatorium, in Seattle. In a few instances the services of specialists in Seattle have been secured for diagnosis and the treatment of diseases of the eye, ear, and nose.

One of the greatest problems of the Office of Education in carrying on its work in Alaska is providing transportation from Seattle of the personnel and supplies required in connection with its activities in the remoter villages, many of which are not reached by commercial lines. Transportation to these places had been secured with difficulty and by the payment of heavy charges to small trading schooners. The problem was partially solved by the transferring from the Navy Department to the Department of the Interior in April, 1920, for use in the Alaskan work of the Office of Education, of the U. S. S. *Boxer*, a brigantine sailing vessel of 500 tons. A Diesel engine was installed in the vessel, and it was refitted for its work in the north Pacific and Arctic Oceans. This staunch little vessel has rendered

effective service, but on account of the continued expansion of the work a larger boat is a necessity.

Each year the *Boxer* carries from Seattle to the coast villages of Alaska and to the distributing points at the mouths of the great rivers appointees entering on duty, together with a heavy tonnage of supplies and equipment.

Leaving Seattle in the spring, the vessel makes its first voyage of the season through the waters of southeastern Alaska and along the southern coast as far as Kodiak Island; on its second voyage it visits the settlements on the shores of the Alaska Peninsula and of Bering Sea; its third voyage is the long cruise to the Eskimo villages beside the waters of the Arctic Ocean as far north as Point Barrow. Its passengers are the teachers, physicians, and nurses going to or returning from their voluntary exile. Its cargo includes the lumber and hardware for use in constructing school buildings or hospitals, the coal and food supplies required for a year, and a year's supply of the books, furniture, and equipment needed by the schools. In its three voyages during the season, the *Boxer* covers about 20,000 nautical miles.

Through employing Alaskan natives as sailors, the *Boxer* also functions as a training ship in the educational program of the office.

Availing themselves of the annual visit of the *Boxer*, many natives send to Seattle reindeer meat, packages of furs, fur clothing, carved ivory, baskets, and rugs, which are sold for them through the Seattle Fur Sales Agency. The proceeds of all sales are sent to the individual natives, applied to the settlement of their accounts with the Seattle merchants, or placed to their credit in savings banks, as requested. The captain of the *Boxer* annually delivers to settlements along the Arctic coast many tons of food supplies, packages of clothing, furniture, and building materials purchased with the proceeds of the sale of furs and other commodities sent out by the Eskimos during the previous summer.

The Office of Education encourages the establishment in native villages of cooperative mercantile stores, financed by native capital and conducted by the natives themselves, with the advice of the teachers of the local schools. This results in securing articles of food and clothing at equitable prices and in acquiring self-confidence and experience in business affairs by the natives. Such enterprises are in successful operation in 18 villages in widely separated sections of the country.

The importation of reindeer from eastern Siberia into Alaska by the Office of Education, as a means of livelihood for the Eskimos of Alaska and to furnish them with food and clothing, began in

1891 and continued until 1902, a total of 1,280 reindeer being imported during that period.

Early in its history the reindeer service became an integral part of the educational system for northwestern Alaska, the raising of reindeer being the form of industrial education best adapted to the Eskimos inhabiting the barren wastes of Arctic and sub-Arctic Alaska. Herders from Lapland were brought to Alaska to instruct the Eskimos in the care and management of reindeer. The reindeer were distributed among the Eskimos under a system of apprenticeship covering a period of four years.

At the satisfactory termination of his apprenticeship the Eskimo received a certain number of reindeer as the nucleus for his own herd. Year after year new centers were established and the reindeer industry extended over a wide area until the ownership of reindeer is now distributed among more than 2,500 natives. Reindeer herds are found throughout the entire coastal area from Point Barrow to the Aleutian Islands. The total number of deer is estimated to be more than 600,000. Of the 78 herds, 59 are owned by natives, 7 are owned by white men, 3 by Lapps, 3 by the Government, 5 jointly by white men and natives, and 1 by a mission. There are 320 herders on the ranges occupied by the native-owned deer.

The greatest problem in connection with the reindeer industry is providing a market for the surplus meat, which is greatly in excess of local demands. There is also danger that the grazing grounds will be stocked beyond their carrying capacity.

From its inception, the reindeer industry among the natives was directed by the Office of Education through its superintendents and teachers. While the herds were small and located in the vicinity of the schools, this arrangement was satisfactory. With the phenomenal increase in the number of deer, the consolidation of the herds, and the distribution of the animals over widely separated areas, it has become impossible for the teachers to exercise proper supervision of the herds in addition to their other duties. By the order of the Secretary of the Interior, October 3, 1929, all matters affecting the reindeer industry in Alaska were transferred to the jurisdiction of the Governor of Alaska.

The growth of the reindeer industry rendered it urgent that provision be made for the allotment of grazing lands. By the act of March 4, 1927, authority was granted for the establishment by the Secretary of the Interior of grazing districts in Alaska and for the granting of leases for definitely described areas therein. The provisions of this act are being carried into effect as rapidly as possible by the General Land Office. This action will regulate the occupancy

of grazing lands by the reindeer herds and prevent friction among the owners of reindeer in regions where the herds are most numerous.

With the great increase in the number of reindeer and the entrance of white men into the industry, the need for scientific attention became apparent, resulting in the assignment by Congress to the Bureau of Biological Survey of the duty of making investigations in connection with the diseases and parasites affecting the reindeer; breeding, feeding, and management practices, and the grazing resources of the Territory.

An interdepartmental committee of representatives of the Department of the Interior and of the Department of Agriculture, appointed to consider problems in connection with the reindeer industry, has issued a statement in order to make clear to State and municipal health officers, to conservation and game commissioners, and to the public, that reindeer meat may be received into the United States and shipped interstate without inspection. No contagious disease has ever been encountered, and no reason has appeared why the sale of reindeer meat should require Federal, State, or municipal inspection for the detection of disease. However, State or municipal inspection of reindeer meat may be made when desirable to determine whether the meat may have been spoiled due to improper storage or handling. For identification purposes the committee has prescribed a tag and an ink brand to be affixed to and placed upon the carcass of each reindeer to be shipped out of Alaska.

Based on a preliminary survey of the grazing areas of Alaska suitable for reindeer production made in 1921, it was estimated that between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 reindeer could be supported on the 150,000 to 200,000 square miles of open grazing lands, from which 1,000,000 or more animals would be available annually for slaughter. Later investigations have shown that approximately 350,000 square miles of the Territory are of value for grazing. This enlarged area found suitable for grazing use should be able ultimately to support a considerably larger number of reindeer with a correspondingly increased number available for slaughter. The greater part of this area is in the treeless tundra bordering the Bering Sea and the Arctic coast.

Since the beginning of the work of the Office of Education for the natives of Alaska in 1884 great progress has been made in the advancement in civilization of the aboriginal races of Alaska, but the task is far from complete. All of the principal settlements have been reached, but there are small villages, remote and difficult of access, in which the natives still exist in their primitive conditions. There are villages out on the tundra and along the coast of Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean where the natives live in small sod houses, partly

underground, to which access is gained through a low tunnel. In many cases the only heat is that thrown off by the bodies of the occupants. The light filters through the window of seal intestines in the roof; the floors are indescribably filthy with litter and refuse. In mild weather these sod houses are wet from seepage and from moisture dripping from the roof and walls. The natives living in these hovels are dressed in parkas made of the skins of wild ducks, sealskin trousers, and boots of fishskins or sealskins. In summer they live on the flesh and eggs of wild birds and a few seal and salmon. In winter they depend for food upon fish, which they catch through holes in the ice. These people live from hand to mouth and have no desire to better their conditions.

In villages where teachers have been stationed for a number of years there are well-constructed, 2-story log or frame houses, with linoleum on the floors, paper on the wall, and containing ranges, heaters, comfortable beds, and good furniture. These natives have on hand supplies of dried fish and reindeer meat, wild berries, and sometimes vegetables grown in their own gardens. They have a stock of wood for winter use, and from their reindeer herds they can secure meat for their own use and for sale, and also skins for clothing.

In southeastern Alaska, where the natives have had the benefit of schools and missions for very many years, conditions in some of the native villages compare favorably with those in the white settlements.

There is no doubt but that the natives of Alaska are being developed in education and industry so as to become an important factor in the economic life of the Territory. Many natives have assumed the responsibilities of citizenship. Some of them are comparatively wealthy, owning their own homes and fishing vessels. Thousands of natives are employed in the canneries of southern Alaska. Fleets of power boats belonging to and operated by natives transport fish from the fishing grounds to the canneries. Many natives are employed in the mines. Others are merchants, boat builders, carpenters, guides, pilots, fishermen, trappers, loggers, ivory carvers, basket weavers, and curio makers. The Office of Education employs as teachers the brightest graduates of its schools. Native girls showing qualifications for medical work are trained in the hospitals as nurses. Natives are employed as cooks, janitors, and orderlies in the hospitals. Natives are found in the legal and clerical professions. Throughout northern and western Alaska the majority of the herds of reindeer are owned by natives.

IV. INDIAN EDUCATION IN THE 48 STATES

By W. CARSON RYAN, JR.,
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INTRODUCTION

Developments in Indian education during the 2-year period 1928-1930 followed more or less directly upon a careful study of Indian administration made by the Institute for Government Research in 1927 at the request of the Secretary of the Interior. In the so-called Meriam report,¹ education received consideration as one of the major activities of the Indian Service, and the educational or developmental aspects of the Indian task were emphasized throughout. This and the current investigation by the Committee on Indian Affairs of the United States Senate indicate the significant effort that is being made to understand the problem of the American Indian and to formulate a program, especially in education. Further evidence of the attention being given to Indian education is afforded by the increased appropriations—the appropriation of \$10,322,500 made available for 1930, representing a considerable increase over the preceding year, was followed by one of \$11,509,701, and the amount for next year will be \$12,105,000.

INDIAN SCHOOLS

Stated quantitatively, Indian education involves some 350,000 people scattered over more than 200 jurisdictions in 28 States. Although the total number of Indians is not large, they comprise widely varying groups derived from at least 50 different linguistic stocks and living in conditions that range from perhaps the highest levels of any of the people of the United States to the lowest. The same tribe or band may have as its members some who are living in a precarious economic and social situation and others who are among the hundreds attending universities or other higher educational institutions or are eminently successful in business or the professions. About two-thirds of these Indians are "wards of the Government" in the sense that they have certain tribal or heirship rights, while

¹ Meriam and Associates. *The Problem of Indian Administration*. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1928.

others long since freed from the guardianship relation may be receiving some Government care or be seriously in need of it.

The Federal Government maintains a system of boarding and day schools for Indian children and cooperates with the public schools by paying tuition for Indian children in certain cases, particularly where the normal taxable resources are reduced as a result of the existence of untaxed Indian land. Mission and private schools also enroll some Indian children. No figures are entirely reliable in this field, but data compiled in 1930 indicate that of the 103,368 Indian children 6 to 18 years of age, 67,525 are definitely known to be enrolled in some school, with the probability that close to 80,000 are enrolled if all Indian pupils attending town schools in Oklahoma are included. A majority of all the Indian children are now attending public schools, the number having increased rapidly in the past few years. Government boarding schools enrolled more than 21,000 in 1930, and Government day schools 4,205, while mission and private schools accounted for between 7,000 and 8,000. School enrollment of the Indian children, arranged in the order of number of Indian children in the States, for the year ending June 30, 1930, is as follows:²

State	Indian children 6 to 18	Enrolled in some school	Percentage enrolled	Public school	Government boarding schools on the reservation	Other Government boarding schools	Government day schools	Mission and private schools
Oklahoma.....	37,236	25,322	70	19,621	2,472	1,704	1,525
Arizona.....	14,932	8,238	55	344	2,844	2,488	966	1,506
New Mexico.....	8,884	4,850	54	108	1,301	1,535	1,189	714
South Dakota.....	7,592	5,719	75	2,021	870	1,307	743	778
Minnesota.....	5,261	4,499	85	3,034	878	575	515
California.....	4,924	2,941	59	1,907	208	601	182	43
Montana.....	4,529	3,790	84	2,160	445	507	238	431
North Dakota.....	3,733	2,294	62	1,022	303	608	78	285
Washington.....	3,676	1,878	51	1,266	178	275	64	95
Wisconsin.....	3,530	1,568	44	336	325	111	30	766
Nebraska.....	1,363	963	71	455	280	98
Nevada.....	1,272	823	65	323	281	219
North Carolina.....	1,261	1,040	83	512	428	32	66
Oregon.....	1,171	806	76	443	143	163	37	109
Idaho.....	1,024	850	83	353	251	90	15	141
Wyoming.....	571	493	86	125	102	31	285
Mississippi.....	534	170	32	20	150
Kansas.....	518	320	61	97	302	21
Utah.....	437	350	80	80	113	62	89	9
Michigan.....	372	275	74	100	55	120
Colorado.....	233	176	76	53	17	105	1
Florida.....	194	14	7	14
Iowa.....	122	62	51	9	53
Total.....	103,368	67,525	65	34,408	10,368	11,008	4,205	7,450

Contracts were made during 1930 for payment of tuition for Indian children with 861 boards of education. It is recognized, of course, that merely placing Indian children in public schools, even where the community is cooperative, is by no means the whole solu-

² Some of the figures in the table are admittedly estimates.

tion. Changes that have been made are enabling the service to plan for a better follow-up of Indian children and the working out of more satisfactory arrangements between the home and the school. Some of the probable next steps in Federal-State relations in education are as follows:

1. Furnish to the State education authorities the most recent accurate data available as to the location of Indian children of school age in their States.

2. Wherever State and local communities are willing and able to take over the schooling of Indian children, give them every possible encouragement and help.

3. Study carefully each existing boarding-school situation to determine whether the school is one that should be closed soon, continued for some other purpose, or maintained indefinitely.

4. Put existing Indian schools into a position where they constitute a real part of the educational program of the State, using State courses of study wherever possible as a basis and meeting State requirements in so far as these are consistent with an education planned to meet the needs of Indian children.

5. Making better tuition arrangements, using tuition payments in particular as a means for getting a better quality of education for both whites and Indians; better qualified teachers, health follow-up, hot lunch, visiting teacher (school social worker) to work between the school and the home.

6. Develop a more modern type of supervision:

- (a) Supervisors from the Indian Office who seek to help the people in the field rather than merely to inspect; these supervisors to visit public and private schools where Indian children are as well as Government Indian schools.

- (b) In States where numbers warrant, a State supervisor of Indian education as part of the staff of the department of public instruction, working directly under the State superintendent or commissioner of education.

One of the chief points in which there has been improvement in the past two years is the extension upward of school facilities in boarding schools and elsewhere. Eight Indian boarding schools now have high-school grades through the twelfth, and of the 12,420 pupils in nonreservation schools, over 7,000 are in junior and senior high-school grades.

HEALTH AND FEEDING OF INDIAN SCHOOL CHILDREN

There has been real progress in the past two years on the physical side of Indian schooling, particularly in the feeding of Indian chil-

dren in boarding schools. Of the \$1,100,000 allowed by Congress in 1930, \$195,000 was allowed for additional subsistence, \$50,000 for noonday lunches in the day schools, \$40,000 for subsistence of children during the summer, and \$50,000 for clothing. By this and succeeding acts, provision was made for sufficient food allowance to furnish a daily per capita provision of 37.8 cents, this being the amount set by an impartial committee of specialists from Government departments. While the schools undoubtedly vary in the success with which they administer this food provision, the almost universal testimony is that the food situation has been satisfactorily solved. Similar results have followed on clothing. While individual schools may still be found where the clothing allowance is unsatisfactory, on the whole sufficient clothing is being provided.

INSTITUTIONAL LABOR

It was formerly regarded as necessary to use half the time of children from the fourth grade up in carrying on the institutional work. When Indian boys and girls came into school late and were consistently several years "overage," the institutional labor was not so serious a problem as it later became. When, however, Indian children began in many places to approximate whites in the age at which they started school and were in grades at more nearly where they belonged, it became evident that the young children should no longer have any considerable institutional burdens. Congressional action has made it possible to hire additional adult labor, purchase laundry machinery and other labor-saving devices, and employ additional teachers. Two hundred assistants and laborers were put in at the schools and hundreds of pieces of new machinery—kitchen and bakery equipment and laundry apparatus. As a result, in nearly all the Indian schools, boys and girls are attending school for the full session through the sixth grade, and three-fourths of the day for the grades beyond the sixth. Gradually the institutional labor is being placed on the only basis on which it can be justified educationally, namely, first, as a contribution from each child to the common task such as would be expected in a good family; second, as part-time work included within a planned vocational-training program. It is not claimed that this stage has been reached in Indian education, but efforts of the past year have brought the goal measurably nearer.

NEW CONSTRUCTION

In the period of the World War and immediately afterwards, building programs everywhere in the United States were seriously

retarded. Indian school plants suffered more than others from neglect, and the process of recovery was slower. Hence the need for an extended construction program, recognized in recent congressional legislation. School construction projects authorized for this year and next total approximately \$3,000,000.

IMPROVEMENTS IN PERSONNEL

Congressional appropriations for the past two years have made possible significant steps in raising qualifications, increasing salaries, setting up positions especially intended to meet the vocational needs of Indian youth, and in providing the professional direction for the whole Indian education enterprise that is regarded as essential.

The entrance requirements for the Indian service educational positions have been raised to such a point that, although they are still below the requirements of the better urban-school systems, they are above the minimum requirements of most of the States. It has been possible to increase the entrance requirements for teachers of primary and intermediate grades so that they are now on a par with those for junior high school—three years of preparation beyond the secondary school and a year of experience, or four years of preparation in a teachers college or university or college of recognized standing. For the first time in the history of the Indian Service it has been possible to place the position of superintendent of Indian schools and school systems on a professional basis, with the requirements of university training and special work in school administration and, in the case of both superintendents and principals, the salaries have been made somewhere near the amount provided in modern salary schedules for professionally qualified people.

As a further result of increased congressional appropriations, the Indian Service has been able to make substantial additions to the group at Washington headquarters and in the field who are responsible for technical educational direction. Some of the newer positions of this sort include an assistant director of education with special preparation in vocational guidance; supervisors of home economics to help carry forward one of the best established parts of the Indian Service program; a supervisor of elementary education and six demonstration teachers or supervisors working under her direction; a supervisor assigned to public-school relations; a supervisor of trade and industrial education; and a director of employment. In the schools the following are among the types of positions that are being set up: Heads of departments of industrial education; agricultural education, home economics, and vocational guidance;

teachers of native crafts; vocational counsellors and school social workers; and special teachers of music, art, and physical education. Particular emphasis is being placed on native arts and crafts, in the hope that the survivals of Indian culture may be preserved and that wherever possible the Indian of to-day may not only be successfully adjusted to white life as an independent citizen but may make his special cultural contribution to our western civilization.

V. EDUCATION OF NEGROES

By **AMBROSE CALIVER**

Specialist in the Education of Negroes, Office of Education

INTRODUCTION

The results of the various activities and interests in the education of the Negro from preemancipation time, through the reconstruction period, up to the present are reflected in Figure 1. This diagram shows that the Negro's desire for an education is not abating. While there is a slight decrease in the percentage the school population bears to the total Negro population, the percentages of school attendance and literate Negroes show marked increases.

Figures 2 and 3 also show the educational progress made by the Negro. In 1916 there were only 64¹ public high schools; this number had risen to 831 in 1929.² The public high-school enrollments for 1916 and 1928 were 8,707 and 164,000, respectively. According to Doctor Klein³ the increases from 1916 to 1927 for the 79 colleges which he surveyed were: For number of colleges, 155 per cent; enrollment, 550 per cent; income, 275 per cent; property value, 146 per cent; and endowments, 185 per cent.

PUBLIC EDUCATION

Availability of schools.—Statistics on the education of the Negro are fragmentary and meager; this is particularly true with respect to adequacy and availability of school facilities. Some idea of the situation may be obtained, however, from the facts revealed by S. L. Smith,⁴ who found that of the 24,079 schools for Negroes in 14 Southern States, during 1925-26, 22,494, or 93.4 per cent, were rural. Of this number 15,385, or 68.8 per cent, were 1-teacher schools; 4,525, or 18.8 per cent, 2-teacher schools; and 1,702, or 7.1 per cent, were 3-teacher schools. The average length of school

¹ Jones, Thomas Jesse. *Negro Education*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1917. (U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1916, No. 38.)

² Favrot, Leo M. *Some Facts about Negro High Schools and Their Distribution in Fourteen Southern States*. High School Quarterly, April, 1929.

³ Klein, A. J. *Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1928. (U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1928, No. 7.)

⁴ Smith, S. L. *Negro Public Schools in the South*. Southern Workman, Vol. LVII, November, 1928.

term of these rural schools was 6 months, ranging from 8.7 months to 4.7 months.

It was estimated by the National Interracial Conference in 1928⁶ that for 12 Southern States there were needed at least 5,990 rooms in addition to the 28,379 available at that time, which would neces-

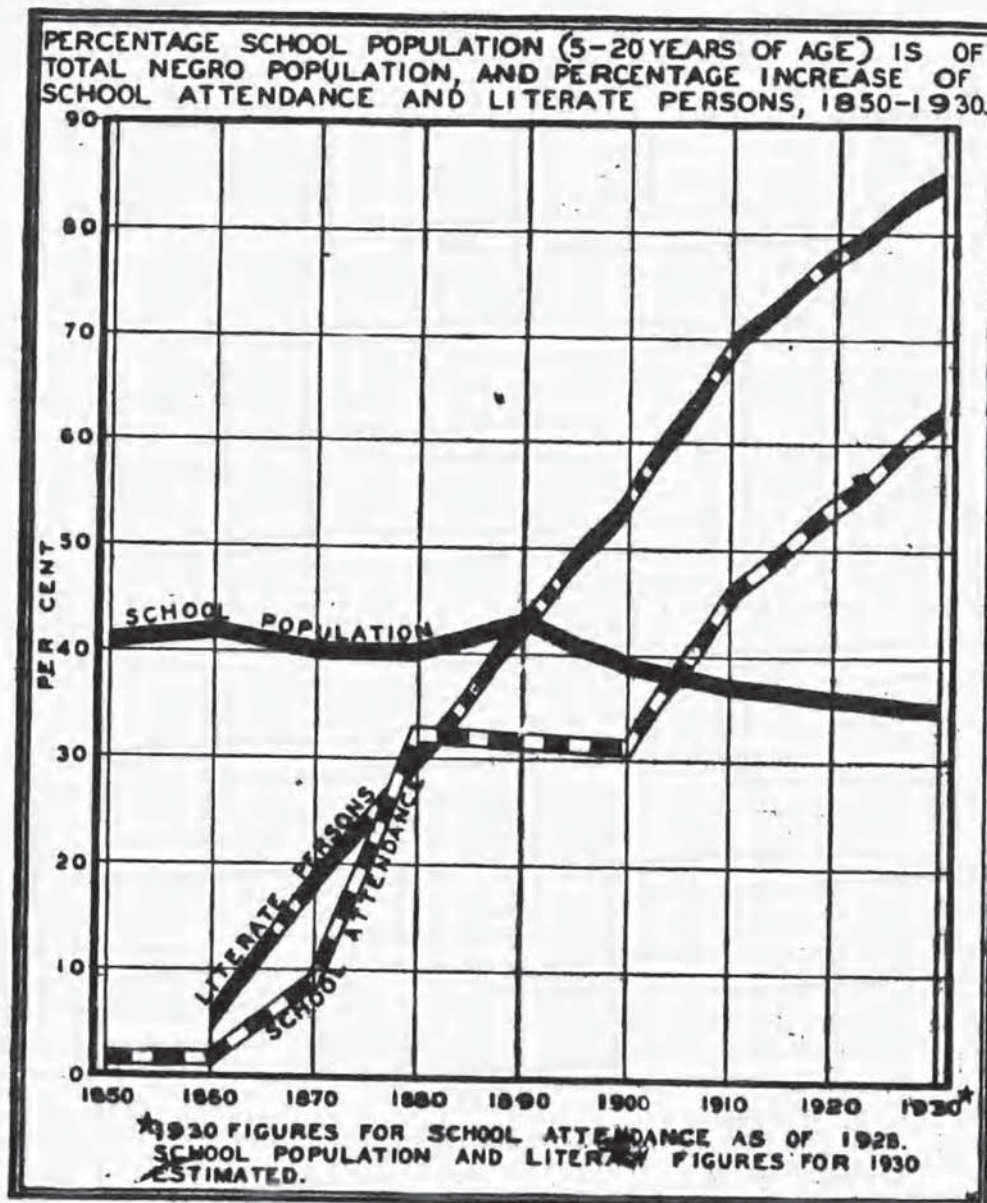


FIGURE 1

sitate an expenditure of about \$7,000,000 for this item alone. During the 10-year period from 1918 to 1928 \$30,000,000 was spent in new construction for common schools for Negroes in 8 States, while more than \$270,000,000 was spent in the same States for

⁶ Johnson, Chas S. The Negro in American Civilization. New York, Henry Holt Co., 1930.

whites. This means that 10 per cent as much was spent for Negroes as whites, yet Negroes constituted 30 per cent of the population in these eight States.

According to a recent study^a there were 282 counties in the South without high-school facilities in which the Negro population was 12½ per cent or more of the total population. This same study^a re-

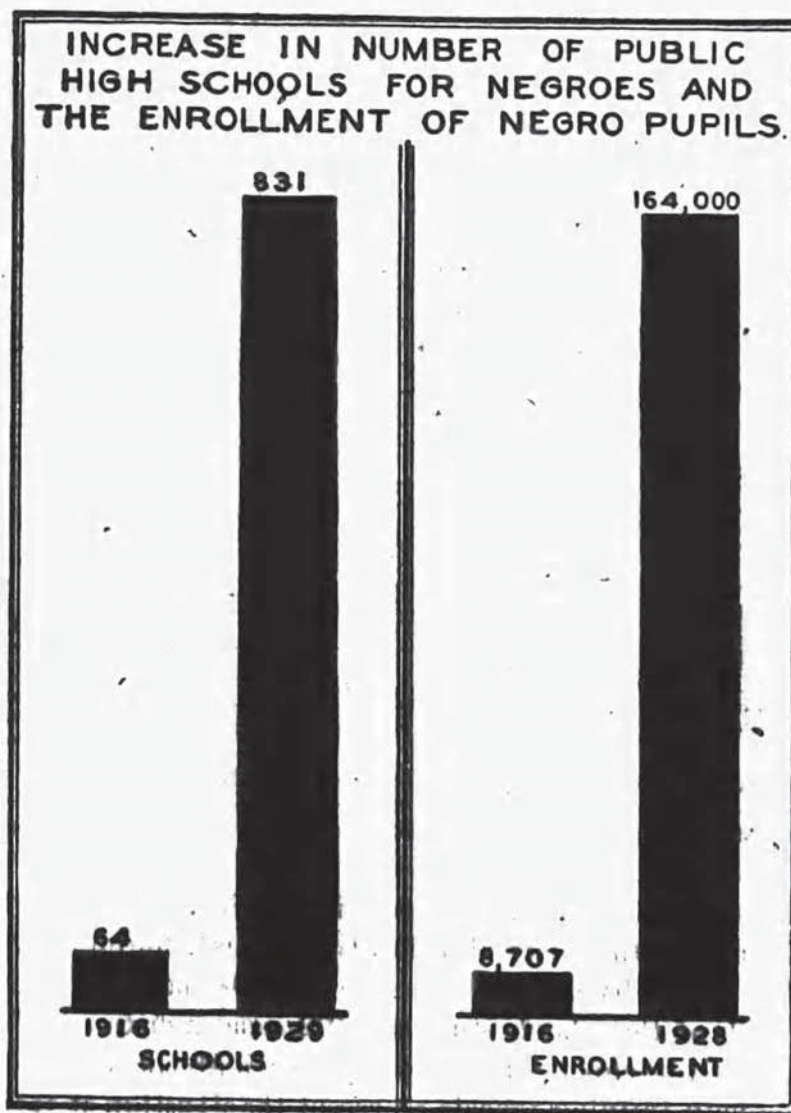


FIGURE 2

vealed that "one-third of the counties of the South with a material Negro population are without high-school facilities for Negroes, either public or private. In these counties are found approximately one-fourth of the Negroes in the South." Table 1 shows conditions in respect to high-school facilities in 14 Southern States.

^aFavrot, Leo M. Op. cit.

Although this is not a complete picture of the situation the facts here presented are indexes of the availability of education for Negroes.

TABLE 1.—Number of counties with high schools and total Negro population in them, and number of counties with 12½ per cent or more Negroes in the population but without high schools¹

States	With high-school facilities		Without high-school facilities	
	Total number counties	Total Negro population in these counties	Number of counties with 12½ per cent or more Negro population	Total Negro population in these counties
Alabama.....	45	780,552	10	87,748
Arkansas.....	18	230,706	13	158,009
Florida.....	21	215,732	31	107,471
Georgia.....	42	578,772	92	617,980
Kentucky.....	54	201,348	1	1,184
Louisiana.....	23	478,346	31	215,526
Maryland.....	19	222,440	3	12,896
Mississippi.....	31	487,613	44	399,951
North Carolina.....	71	709,900	9	42,842
Oklahoma.....	26	131,148	0	0
South Carolina.....	40	762,097	6	92,622
Tennessee.....	30	294,819	9	101,529
Texas.....	88	706,576	8	31,086
Virginia.....	51	540,275	25	97,030
Total.....	578	6,355,409	282	1,966,833

Total Negro population, 14 States..... 8,685,585

Total Negro population, 578 counties..... 6,355,409

Total Negro population, 282 counties..... 1,966,833

8,322,242

Total Negro population, other counties (less than 12½ per cent Negro)..... 363,343

¹ Favrot, Leo M. Some facts about Negro high schools and their distribution and development in 14 Southern States. Op. cit.

A study of county-training schools in the South made in 1923 by L. M. Favrot, of the General Education Board, found only 74 per cent of the pupils living within a radius of 2½ miles. Of the total 81,125 pupils of the schools studied, 1,072 came a distance of 5 miles or more to attend school. In this connection it should be remembered that the county-training schools represent the situation at its best.

The average length of the school year for the entire country for 1927-28 was 171.5 days; for the Negro schools it was 131 days, allowing 75 per cent as much time for the Negro child as for the average child in America to accomplish the same task. When we add to this the poor-attendance record of the Negro child, the percentage of term actually attended is reduced even further. Some encouragement may be gained from the fact, however, that for the

entire country during the past 9 years the average length of school term has increased 16 days, or 11 per cent for the whites, and 11 days; or 9 per cent, for the colored. And yet, according to a recent study, from 1925-26 to 1927-28, one Southern State increased the number of school days for white children by 21 and decreased the number for colored children by 28.⁴

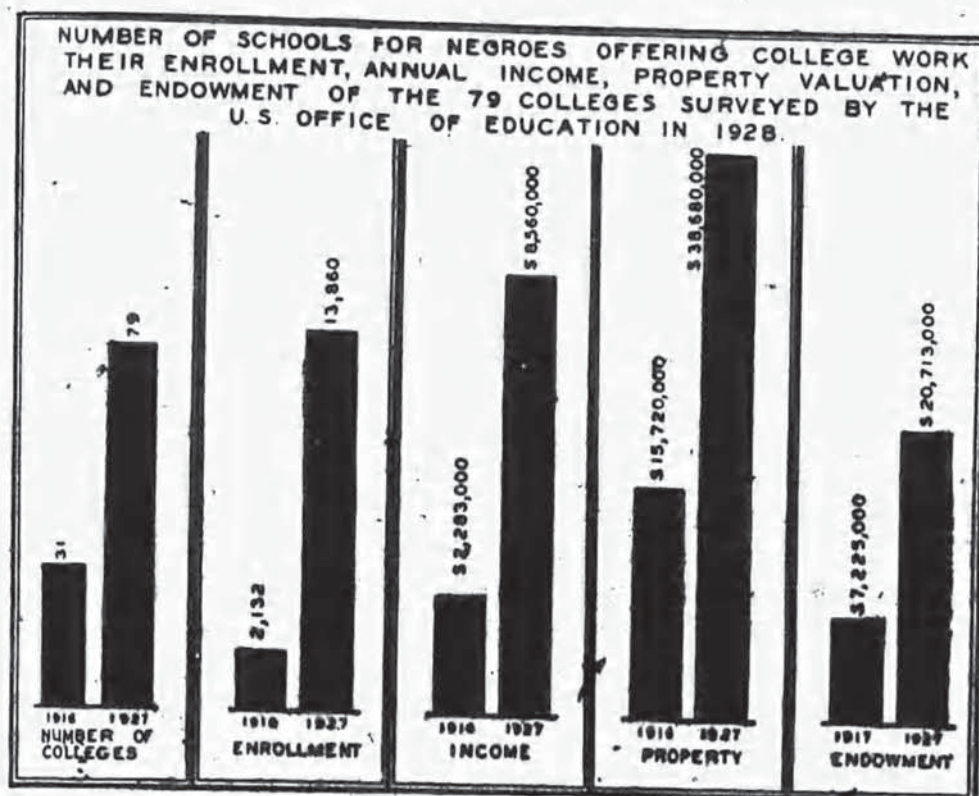


FIGURE 3

Another problem closely connected with that of short school terms, as has already been inferred, is poor attendance. Because of inaccessibility of schools, necessity for work, poor health conditions, and many other causes over some of which the student and his family have little control, we find the attendance record of Negro children to be very poor. Table 2 gives the school term and school attendance of white and colored pupils in 15 States for the year 1927-28. Figure 4 shows these same data graphically.

⁴ Blose, David T. Statistics of the Negro Race, 1927-1928. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1930. (U. S. Office of Education. Pamphlet No. 14, 1930.)

TABLE 2.—School term and school attendance of white and colored pupils in 15 States, 1927-28¹

State	Length of school term (days)		Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	
	In white schools	In colored schools	In white schools	In colored schools
Alabama.....	138	127	116	92
Arkansas.....	150	132	110	93
Delaware.....	185	184	161	145
District of Columbia.....	180	180	149	150
Florida.....	163	124	124	98
Georgia.....	154	137	119	100
Louisiana.....	173	114	139	85
Maryland.....	189	178	160	136
Mississippi.....	162	112	118	76
North Carolina.....	154	138	120	95
Oklahoma.....	150	142	101	86
South Carolina.....	172	116	129	83
Tennessee.....	167	149	117	108
Texas.....	157	130	131	106
Virginia.....	165	142	134	106

¹ Phillips, Frank M.: *Statistics of State School Systems, 1927-28*. U. S. Office of Education.

Students.—During the 9-year period between 1919-20 and 1927-28, according to reports received by the Office of Education, the Negro school population (5-17 years) increased 10.8 per cent and the total Negro enrollment in elementary and high schools increased 9 per cent. In the year 1927-28¹ there were 2,201,221 Negro children enrolled in public elementary schools and 11,259 in private elementary schools, the larger proportion of the former being in rural schools. The figures for public high schools and private high schools were, respectively, 164,987 and 9,904. Tables 3 and 4 show the per cent of the total school enrollment in each grade in 17 Southern States. Observe that 96 per cent of the students are enrolled in grades 1 to 8; more than one-third in the first grade and 74 per cent below the fifth grade. These figures call attention to the problem of elimination, one of the most serious difficulties faced by schools for Negroes. Figure 5 is a graphic representation of the data given in Tables 3 and 4. Table 5 shows a comparison between the urban and rural high-school enrollment among Negroes. The relatively high record of Oklahoma is especially to be noted, as is also that of North Carolina and Texas.

¹ *Ibid.*

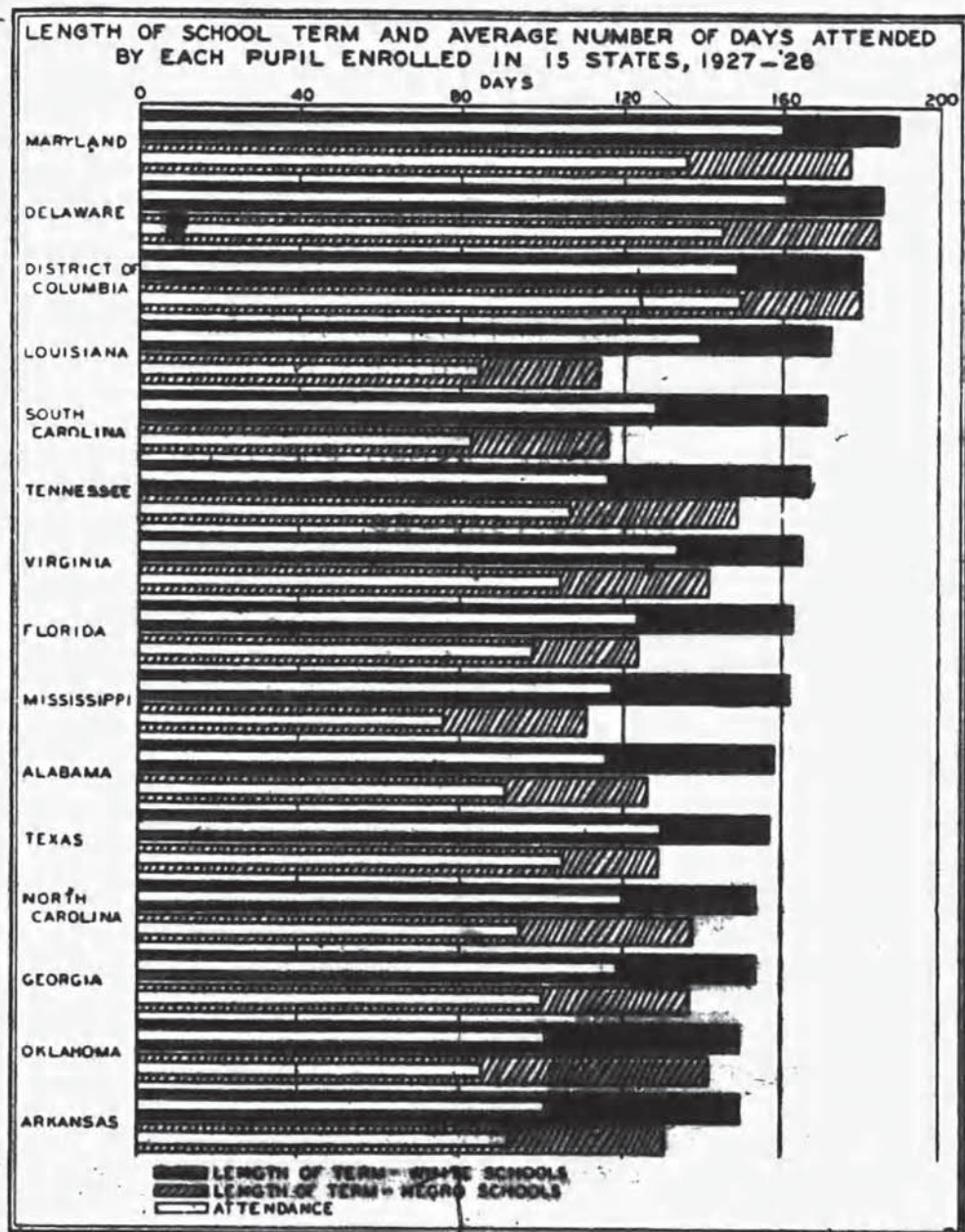


FIGURE 4

TABLE 3.—Percentage of the total school enrollment in each elementary grade in 17 Southern States, 1927-28

	Grade								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Country as a whole, per cent.....	10	11	10	10	9	9	8	6	84
Negro, per cent.....	35	25	13.2	11.7	9.1	6.6	4.3	1.6	90.3

TABLE 4.—Percentage of the total school enrollment in each secondary grade in 17 Southern States, 1927-28

	Grade or year				Total
	1	2	3	4	
Country as a whole, per cent.....	5.4	4.0	2.6	2.4	14.8
Negro, per cent.....	1.7	1.0	.6	.4	3.7

Because of the late entrance and early leaving before the close of the session it is estimated^a that Negro pupils lose about 3.3 months

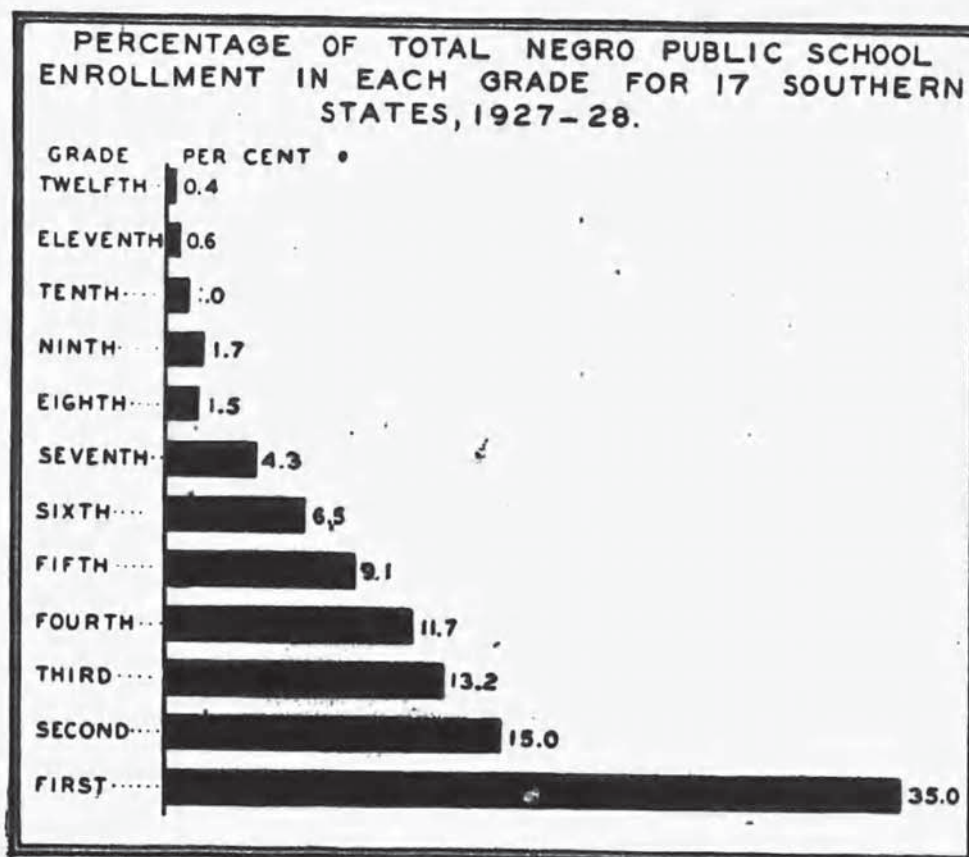


FIGURE 5

from a regular 8-month term. When this practice obtains and the school term is only 5 or 6 months, there is little wonder that we find the average retardation of 2 or 3 years shown by some students of the subject. D. H. Cooke^b reports for North Carolina 68.1 per cent retardation for Negro children for the year 1927-28 as against

^a Favrot, Leo M. Study of County Training Schools for Negroes in the South. J. F. Slater Fund, Charlottesville, Va., 1923. (Occasional Papers, No. 23.)

^b Cooke, D. H. The White Superintendent and the Negro Schools in North Carolina. Contributions to Education, No. 73. George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., 1930.

42 per cent for the whites. It should be noted here that North Carolina has been considered by many to be the most progressive State in the South in the education of Negroes.

Teachers.—"The development of the Negro race in the United States depends more directly on the elementary-school teachers than on any other group," said Thomas Jesse Jones in 1916 in his *Survey of Negro Education*.⁸ In L. M. Favrot's *Study of County Training Schools for Negroes in the South*⁹ it was found that "of 732 teachers reporting on the number of sessions taught in the schools in which they were then working, 311, or 42.5 per cent, were in these schools for the first time."

TABLE 5.—*Urban and rural Negro population (census 1920), Negro high-school enrollment, and number of Negro high-school pupils per thousand Negroes enrolled in high school in 14 States*¹

State	Negro population		Negro high-school enrollment		Number of Negro high-school pupils enrolled per thousand and population
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	
Alabama.....	198, 833	708, 819	3, 489	2, 792	6.9
Arkansas.....	73, 592	398, 628	1, 696	670	5.0
Florida.....	120, 596	208, 891	1, 655	67	5.2
Georgia.....	273, 086	933, 329	4, 189	984	5.7
Kentucky.....	105, 393	130, 645	2, 653	830	14.5
Louisiana.....	100, 413	809, 844	3, 967	1, 663	7.7
Maryland.....	124, 609	119, 970	2, 529	549	13.8
Mississippi.....	98, 626	836, 658	1, 661	1, 875	7.1
North Carolina.....	155, 165	608, 242	8, 470	5, 860	18.7
Oklahoma.....	47, 904	101, 504	2, 108	1, 199	22.1
South Carolina.....	116, 489	748, 230	1, 990	2, 070	8.1
Tennessee.....	170, 464	281, 294	1, 065	932	12.0
Texas.....	223, 375	518, 321	11, 148	2, 307	18.1
Virginia.....	209, 134	480, 863	4, 912	1, 995	10.0
Total.....	2, 106, 527	6, 660, 066	61, 538	24, 093	9.8

¹ Favrot, Leo M. *Some Facts About Negro High Schools and Their Distribution and Development in Fourteen Southern States*. Op. cit.

The number of pupils enrolled in the entire country for each teacher in 1927-28 was 80. For every Negro teacher, however, there was enrolled an average of 45 pupils. In one Southern State we find that white teachers have an average of 83 pupils, while Negro teachers have an average of 52.

Salaries of Negro teachers constitute, perhaps, the gravest element in the entire situation. Table 6 shows for 15 Southern States the average annual salary for all teachers and for Negro teachers. For one State the minimum monthly salary for Negroes was as low as \$15 and the maximum only \$225. The poor preparation of Negro

⁸ Jones, Thomas Jesse. *Survey of Negro Education*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1917. (U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1916, Nos. 38-39.)

⁹ Favrot, Leo M. Op. cit.

teachers in many cases may be attributed to low salaries. Figure 6 presents graphically the salary situation for Negro teachers as compared with the average for the States as a whole.

TABLE 6.—Average annual salary of teachers in 15 States, 1927-28¹

State	Average annual salary for State as a whole	Average annual salary for Negroes	State	Average annual salary for State as a whole	Average annual salary for Negroes
Alabama.....	\$747	\$345	Mississippi.....	\$545	\$386
Arkansas.....	690	412	North Carolina.....	838	487
Delaware.....	1,451	1,153	Oklahoma.....	963	827
Florida.....	906	415	South Carolina.....	769	302
Georgia.....	647	265	Tennessee.....	835
Kentucky.....	851	Texas.....	842	687
Louisiana.....	980	494	Virginia.....	822	472
Maryland.....	1,418	990			

¹ Bloss, David T., op. cit.

¹ 1925-26.

Another factor influencing the preparation of Negro teachers has been the lack of facilities for teacher training. Before the land-grant colleges were established dependence was placed almost wholly in the private colleges for the preparation of teachers, and more than 90 per cent of the county teachers received all of their training in the local county school until the establishment of the county training schools by the trustees of the Slater Fund.¹⁰

There are a great number of Negro teachers in the public schools who are poorly prepared, but the new State requirements, better supervision, increase in facilities for training, such as normal schools and summer schools, and the generosity of the educational foundations are all being embraced by the Negro teacher with appreciation and enthusiasm in an effort to better prepare himself. It is estimated that in 1926 there were 23,686 Negro teachers in summer schools. There were probably 30,000 Negro teachers enrolled in summer schools during the summer of 1930.

Support.—Inadequate financial support of schools is undoubtedly the most important element in the entire educational situation as it relates to Negroes and is the cause of the defects which are found in the educational facilities provided for the Negro. In reference to this lack of provision, Doctor Jones,¹¹ 15 years ago called attention to the poverty of the rural sections and the ineffectiveness of the systems of taxation as contributing to the South's low per capita expenditure for whites as compared with other parts of the country.

¹⁰ Favrot, Leo M. Op. cit.

¹¹ Jones, Thomas Jesse. Op. cit.

"Nevertheless," he says, "the per capita expenditure for Negro schools, by whatever standard measured, is utterly inadequate."

While there is still a great divergence between the support of education for Negro and white children in States which maintain separate school systems, the condition is improving, being much more favorable both in absolute terms and in the ratio between the

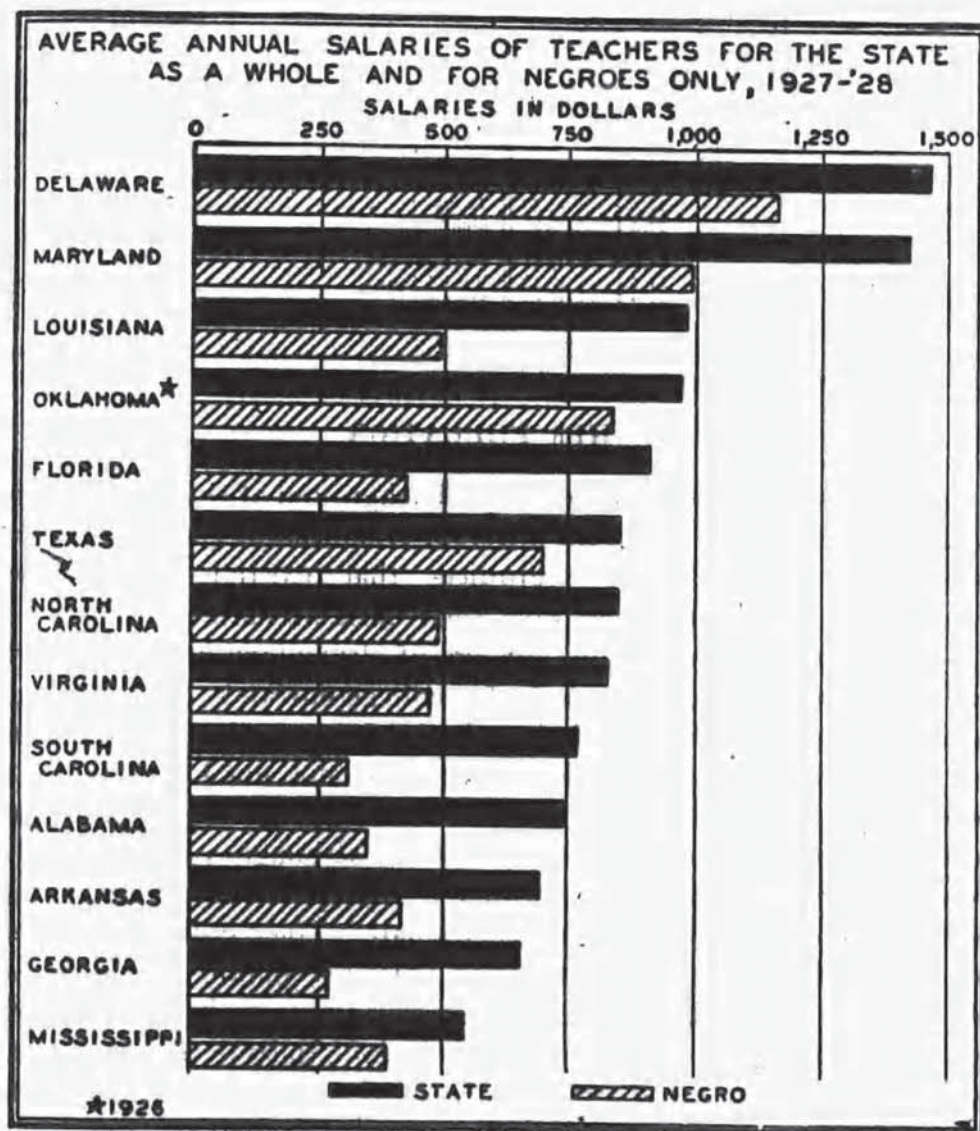


FIGURE 6

two groups. Table 7 and Figure 7 give a picture of the situation in 1928 with respect to the support of education for Negroes in 17 Southern States.

The activities of philanthropic foundations have done much to stimulate increased interest in this important question; and, as a direct result of their influence, not only has the support increased from public funds, but many of the white people of the South have

shown their desire and determination to remedy the conditions by making substantial private contributions.

TABLE 7.—Proportions State educational funds devoted to Negro education compared with proportionate distribution of Negro educables in 17 States¹

State	Per cent of total population 6-13 that Negroes are—	Per cent of total expenditures for education of Negroes	State	Per cent of total population 6-13 that Negroes are—	Per cent of total expenditures for education of Negroes
South Carolina.....	54.9	10.65	Tennessee.....	22.9	11.93
Mississippi.....	53.0	10.51	Maryland.....	17.8	9.67
Georgia.....	43.5	13.33	Texas.....	16.2	12.00
Louisiana.....	39.3	9.98	Delaware.....	14.4	13.78
Alabama.....	38.9	8.40	Kentucky.....	8.2	8.02
Florida.....	36.9	7.91	Oklahoma.....	7.3	4.73
North Carolina.....	31.3	12.13	West Virginia.....	4.7	4.65
Virginia.....	31.3	11.09	Missouri.....	4.1	3.15
Arkansas.....	28.9	18.90			

¹ Johnson, Charles S. *The Negro in American Civilization*. Op. cit.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Land-grant colleges.—"The historic background of the Negro land-grant colleges * * * is far different from that of the white institutions. Confronted with prejudices that existed against the members of the Negro race, with their lack of material resources and possessions, and with the shortage of elementary and secondary schools to prepare Negro students for college entrance, formation of the institutions as colleges offering the **land-grant type** of education was seriously retarded."¹² In consequence, not until recent years were these schools able to shift their emphasis from the lower-grade work to that of college standards. And, although practically all are now degree-granting institutions, the proportion of college enrollment in some of them is still very small. These colleges can not function at their maximum efficiency until the public high schools relieve them of the burden of giving secondary training, both of academic and vocational nature to the Negro students of the South.

From 1916 to 1928 the annual income of the land-grant colleges increased 442 per cent, and their property valuation increased 323 per cent, as will be seen by referring to Table 8 and Figure 8. It will also be noted that the elementary enrollment decreased, while the high-school enrollment increased nearly 100 per cent, and the college enrollment rose from 12 to 3,691. During the past two years appropriations from the States and donations from foundations to these schools for current expenses and capital outlay

¹² United States. Office of Education. *Negro Land-Grant Colleges. In: Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Part X, p. 537. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1930. (Bulletin, 1930, No. 9.)*

have greatly surpassed those of any former period. An entire new plant has been completed for the Negro land-grant college of

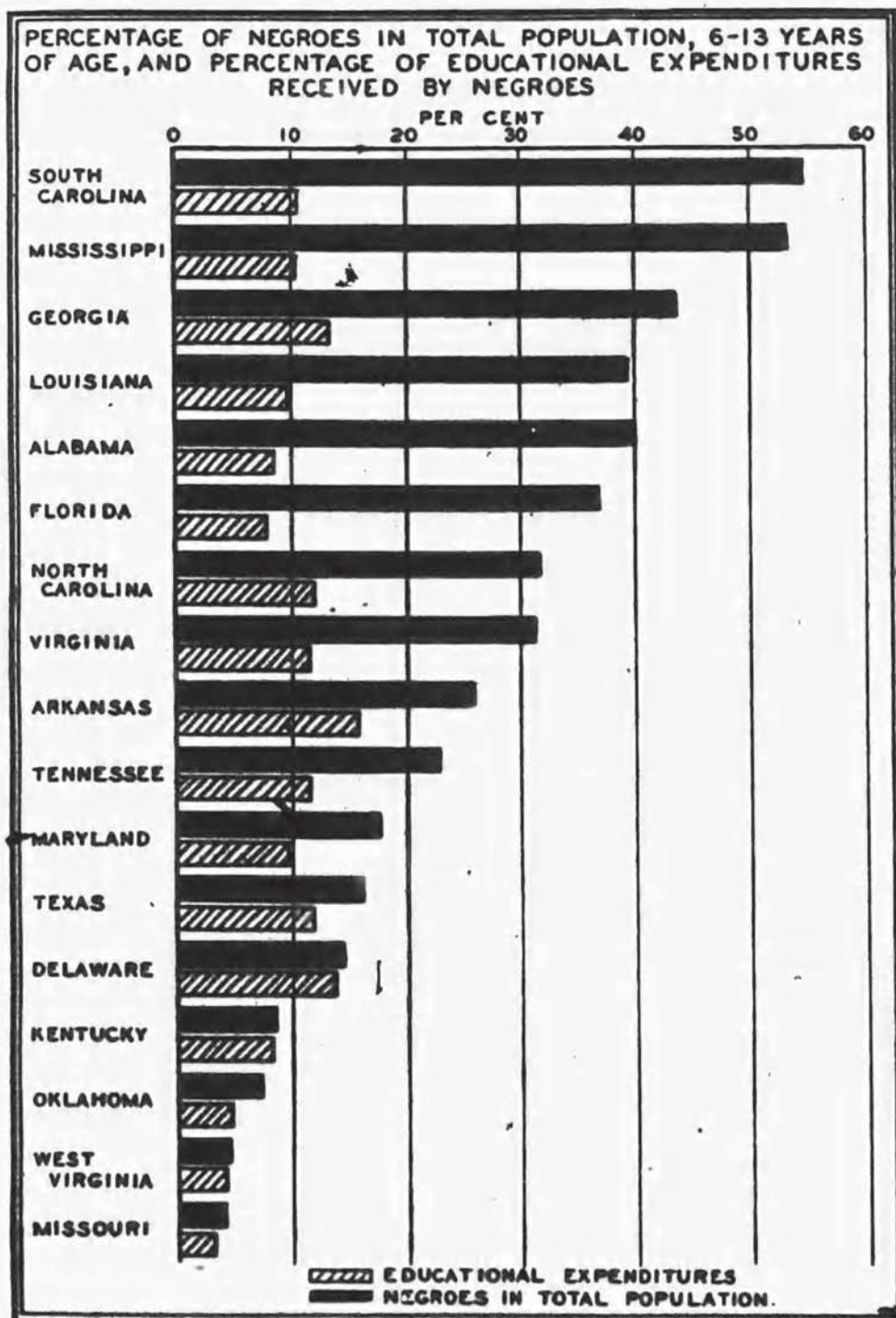


FIGURE 7

Arkansas, and several of the colleges have under construction or plans made to begin construction on additions to their plants ranging in values of several thousand to more than a million dollars.

TABLE 8.—Comparison between 1916 and 1928 in property value, annual income, and enrollment in 16 Negro land-grant colleges

	1916 ¹	1928 ²
Property value.....	\$2, 576, 142	\$10, 879, 270
Annual income.....	\$544, 520	\$2, 776, 709
College enrollment.....	12	3, 631
High-school enrollment.....	2, 268	4, 124
Elementary-school enrollment.....	2, 595	2, 008

¹ U. S. Bureau of Education. Negro Education. Ibid.² U. S. Office of Education. Negro Land-Grant Colleges. Ibid.

Private colleges.—An outstanding development affecting private higher education for Negroes is the merger or contemplated merger of colleges which is taking place. This advance move is not only being made among colleges of the same denomination, but among those of different sects. The leading example of this movement is furnished by the Atlanta and New Orleans groups of schools. In Atlanta an arrangement is being effected whereby Morehouse College, a Baptist school for men, and Spelman College, a Baptist school for women, will be merged with Atlanta University, which was formerly a Congregational, coeducational college, but is now doing only graduate work. In New Orleans, Straight College, a Congregational school, and New Orleans University, a Methodist college, have merged into an entirely new institution and will be named the J. H. Dillard University.

The following quotation from a letter from Dr. Merrill J. Holmes, secretary for institutions for Negroes, of the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, under date of February 4, 1931, illustrates the manner in which the problem of mergers is being attacked:

Plans are under way for combining the interests of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Alabama with those of the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church. Miles Memorial College of the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church at Birmingham, Ala., offers the basis for this projected cooperation.

The two schools at Holly Springs, Miss., are engaged in close cooperation in the college field: Rust College, sponsored by the Board of Education, and Mississippi Industrial College of the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.

Other consolidations have taken place and many more are being contemplated. It is believed that many of the religious denominations and independent church boards have finally come to realize that the best interest of their educational programs, as carried out by their colleges, can be realized only by eliminating much of the duplication and overlapping which has been prevalent in the past, and by confining themselves to certain spheres of action and influence.

It was with this latter thought in mind that the late Doctor Phenix, soon after he became president of Hampton Institute, initiated a

conference between the presidents of several of the larger colleges for Negroes for the purpose of discussing the feasibility of a program designed to eliminate the duplication of certain courses and departments, with special reference to graduate and undergraduate work.

Another very important happening in the field of private education for Negroes is the generous support which the Federal Govern-

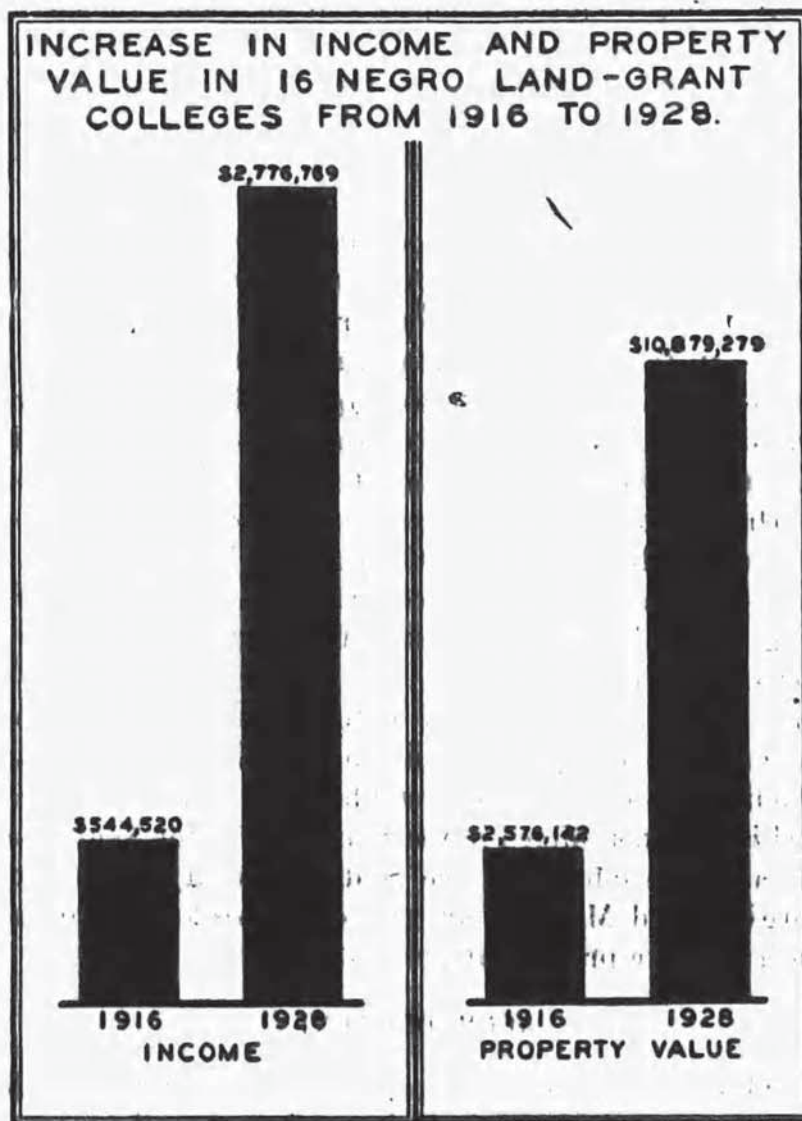


FIGURE 8

ment has given Howard University and its decision to make such support a matter of permanent policy. This assures the development of at least one school for Negroes of real university proportions.

Teacher training.—Another distinctive feature in the progress of higher education for Negroes is the growth, in very recent years, of publicly supported teacher-training institutions, both State and municipal. The junior colleges of Houston, Tex., and Little Rock, Ark.,

are examples of the latter, while in practically every State school for Negroes examples of the former may be found where great impetus is being given the teacher-training work. Special mention should be made of the Miner Teachers College in Washington, D. C., and the Stowe Teachers College in St. Louis, Mo. Both of these institutions have recently undergone reorganization and are prepared to offer a degree after the completion of a 4-year course. They are developing strong faculties, composed of men and women with the Ph. D. degree from leading universities, and many others with excellent training and wide experience. This is particularly noteworthy when it is remembered that only a few years ago dependence for the supply of Negro teachers was almost wholly upon private colleges.

Other items of special significance are: The development of graduate work at Fisk University and Atlanta University, and the completion of a \$400,000 library at the former school and the planning of a similar one at the latter; the building of the new plant of the Meharry Medical College near the campus of Fisk University, which will permit of a closer cooperation and coordination; the development of a social science research center in Nashville, at Fisk University; the important campaigns for larger endowments being waged by schools like Talladega College and Wiley College. These and many other activities are eloquent in their evidence of a new awakening which has taken place in the whole field of the higher education of Negroes.

Another innovation worthy of note is the special arrangement whereby certain States pay the tuition and other fees of Negro students who find it necessary to go outside the State to pursue advanced courses which are not offered in the State schools for Negroes and are the same as those offered in the State university. The States of West Virginia and Missouri are the only two known to the office where such practice prevails at present.

ACCREDITMENT

In the whole field of secondary and higher education for Negroes perhaps nothing is of more far-reaching effect than the recent movement to accredit Negro institutions by the same standards as are applied to schools for whites.

Most of the Southern States accredit the secondary schools for Negroes within their territory, and many of them apply the same standards by which the schools for whites are measured. Many of these States accredit the professional education work done in the various colleges of the State. This is for the purpose of certification of teachers. North Carolina has not confined itself to accrediting

schools within its own borders but has upon invitation accredited several private colleges in other States.

Table 9 shows the number of high schools having a certain type of accreditation in various States. These data were furnished directly by the State departments of education. In cases where the status of a school was not made clear or where the data did not seem to be comparable such schools were listed in the column designated "uncertain."

TABLE 9.—Accreditation of high schools for Negroes by States, 1930-31¹

State	Accredited						Unaccredited	Uncertain	Total
	Public				Private				
	4 years	3 years	2 years	1 year	4 years	3 years			
Alabama.....	6	2	6	5	5			28	47
Arizona.....	1								1
Arkansas.....	7				5		60		72
Delaware.....								5	5
District of Columbia.....	3						4	6	13
Florida.....	15				3		9	14	41
Georgia.....	14				14		21	77	126
Illinois.....	8		2					1	11
Indiana.....								8	8
Kansas.....								3	3
Kentucky.....	19				3		25	26	73
Louisiana.....	29	9			13	1		5	57
Maryland.....	1							30	31
Mississippi.....	16	5	16	4	11			8	62
Missouri.....	12	1			1		28		42
New Jersey.....								2	2
New Mexico.....								3	3
North Carolina.....								147	147
Ohio.....								5	5
Oklahoma.....	18						20	37	75
Pennsylvania.....								3	3
South Carolina.....								80	80
Tennessee.....								71	71
Texas.....	26	5			8		179		218
Virginia.....	18				9		57	2	86
West Virginia.....								23	23
Total.....	193	24	24	9	72	1	408	589	1,815

¹ These data were furnished by the State departments of education of the several States. Incomplete reports from some States and lack of comparability of rating standards render the table less valuable than it otherwise might have been. It should also be noted that some of the schools listed as doing high-school work in any given year may subsequently discontinue such work.

In the spring of 1930 the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association, on the basis of the findings of the Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities,¹² prepared a tentative list of colleges which were deemed worthy of approval and prepared to do two years of acceptable premedical college work. More recently the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, through its committee on approval of Negro schools, secured an executive agent whose duty it is to study the colleges for Negroes and make recommendations for their accredi-

¹² Klein, A. J. Op. cit.

ment according to the regular standards of the association. On December 15, 1930, the first list of colleges, with their ratings, was announced. The work of studying the institutions is continuing and another list is to be announced in December, 1931.

This advance move will undoubtedly do much to stimulate the progressive school spirit among Negroes, and will lend a status to their educational work which could hardly be achieved otherwise.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

Surveys.—Surveys of Negro education have concerned themselves with large groups of schools, schools within a State, special curriculum studies, or surveys of student personnel, as, for example, investigations concerning intelligence of students and background studies. The most important of the surveys which have been made are:

(1) Negro education: A Study of the Private and Higher Schools for Colored People in the United States.¹⁴ This survey was made in 1916 by Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones.

(2) Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities,¹⁵ which was made in 1928 by the Bureau of Education, at the instance of the Association of Colleges for Negro Youth and upon the invitation of the colleges surveyed.

(3) Negro Land-Grant Colleges.¹⁶ This is a section of the larger survey of all land-grant colleges made in 1927-1930 by the Office of Education.

Two other surveys now being conducted by the Office of Education, and which promise to be of far-reaching importance, are the Survey of Secondary Education Among Negroes, which is a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education, and the Survey of the Education of Negro Teachers, which likewise is a part of the National Survey of Teacher-Education.

Another school survey is explained in the following paragraph of a letter from one of the officials of the Methodist Episcopal Church:

The board of education of the Methodist Episcopal Church is conducting a survey of its general colleges under the direction of Prof. Floyd W. Reeves, of the University of Chicago. In connection with the extension of survey plans to the schools for Negro youth joint arrangements are being made by which the schools of the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church, as well as those of the Methodist Episcopal Church, will be included in the survey.

A study of the work of the American Missionary Association has just been completed by Dr. Frederick L. Brownlee, executive secre-

¹⁴ Jones, Thomas Jesse. Op. cit.

¹⁵ Klein, A. J. Op. cit.

¹⁶ U. S. Office of Education. Op. cit.

tary of missions. This is a general survey and "summary of achievements and trends" over a period of 10 years.

The Office of Education has knowledge of special surveys or investigations which have been made recently as a part of state-wide surveys in Florida, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, and Texas.

The many researches and studies in the education of Negroes which have been completed during the past two years or are in progress indicate the achievement that is being made along this line. More than 50 such studies have been reported to the office for the present biennium, and it is believed that there are many more which have not been reported.

NEW SERVICE IN THE EDUCATION OF NEGROES

A new section was established in the United States Office of Education in 1930 concerned with the education of Negroes. In general, the functions are: To furnish information concerning Negro education; to conduct, direct, and encourage educational research; to stimulate interest in the present status and future possibilities of Negro education; and to assist in coordinating the various researches, activities, and interests of Negro schools and of persons concerned in Negro education and related matters.

American Education Week program.—One of the early achievements of this new service was the arrangement of a radio program on the education of Negroes, which was broadcast over a national hook-up on November 12, 1930, during American Education Week. While the program itself attracted nation-wide attention, its greatest value was in the interest aroused and maintained among schools and their patrons in the educational problems confronting the Negro. Weeks prior to the program an educational campaign was conducted among the secondary schools and colleges for Negroes and in the press, with a view to stimulating interest and motivating a study of the problems. Letters and suggestions were sent to these schools throughout the country encouraging them to observe American Education Week with appropriate programs and activities.

The schools were requested to send information concerning their observance of this occasion. While all did not reply, some indication of the results may be gathered from the reports of those that did. Eighty-six schools and 25 colleges reported, with an enrollment of 30,435 and 3,680, respectively. These high schools also reported 3,749 elementary pupils who were brought within the influence of American Education Week observance. A total of 58 schools cooperated with other schools and community organizations during this occasion. Exhibits were held, programs for the community were

rendered by the school, plays staged, sermons preached, and talks given by teachers, community leaders, and students.

National Advisory Committee.—Another outcome of this new service in the Office of Education is the appointment by Secretary Wilbur of the National Advisory Committee on the Education of Negroes. The committee is composed of 24 men and women drawn from various sections of the United States, and representing various phases of education, such as elementary education, secondary education, and teacher preparation. The group includes classroom teachers as well as administrators, and each is an expert in his special field. It is a rotating group, certain members of which will serve only while the special projects in which they are interested are being considered, others being added as new projects are undertaken.

The general purpose of the committee is to cooperate with the Office of Education in its work concerned with the education of Negroes and give advice and counsel in connection with major problems and questions which will arise from time to time in connection with the national surveys being conducted by the Office of Education, as well as other general educational matters. The hope was also expressed at the time of their appointment that the members of this committee might serve as contact representatives in the various geographical centers in interpreting the needs of the race to the Office of Education and in turn the plans and program of the office to the race.

